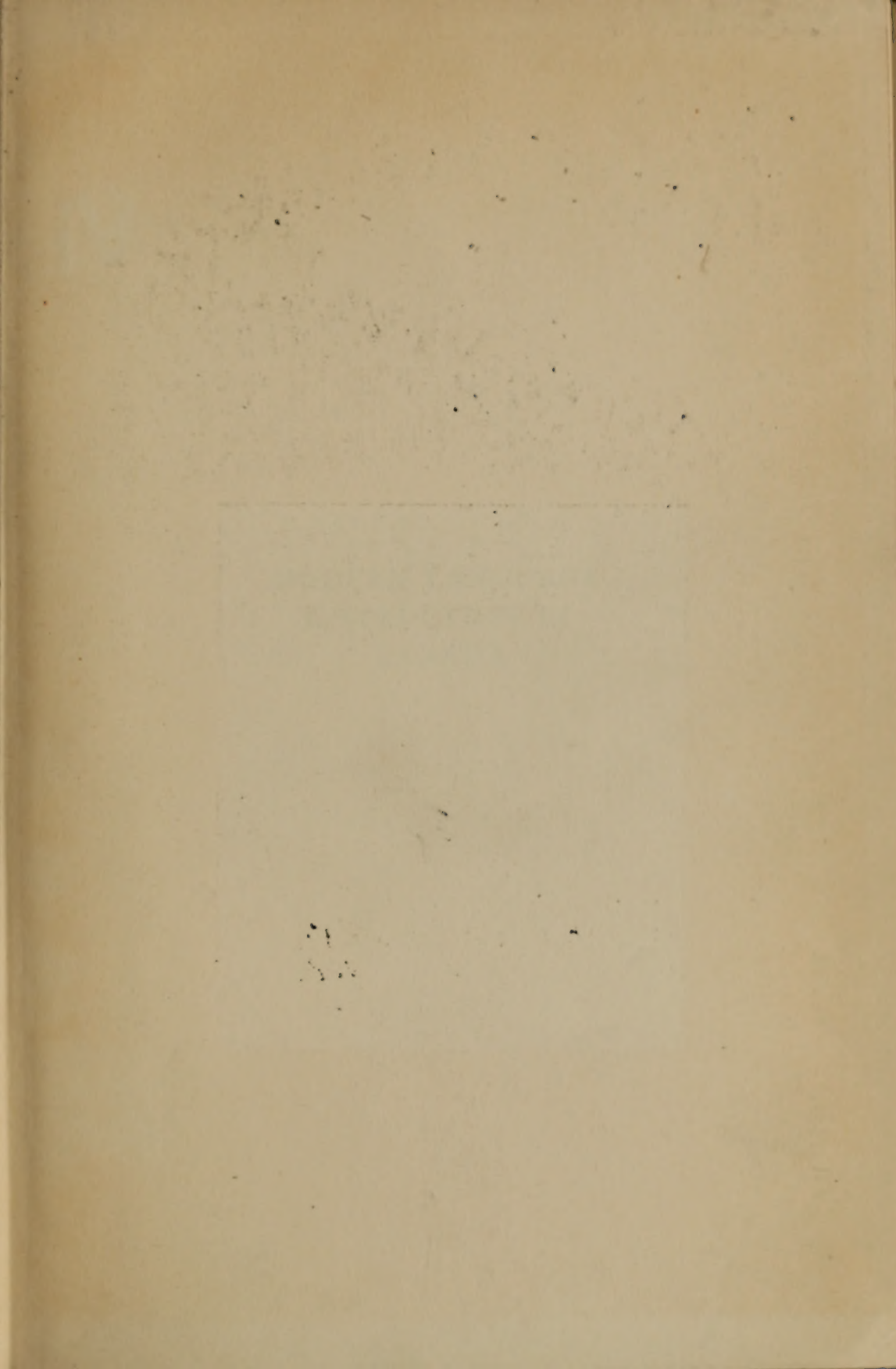


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MODERN LANGUAGE
INSTRUCTION IN
CANADA

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on Modern Languages, Volume VII.

MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN CANADA

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MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN CANADA

1911

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HISTORY OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN CANADA

NOVA SCOTIA

Nova Scotia is one of the smaller provinces of Canada, having an area of about 21,000 square miles. Its 13,000,000 acres of land are as yet occupied only to the extent of about 6,000,000 acres, which are divided into about 1800 school sections approximating four miles in extent, except where towns and cities occupy a larger area. In 1921 its population was found to be 523,837, and the estimate at date is 540,000.

The school system is a single one, having the elementary and secondary grades all under the control of the one school board of the school section, the grades running up to XII which is planned to be of the university matriculation standard, although some of the colleges accept passes in the subjects of XI. Grades IX to XII are high school courses. Last year 100,443 were in the common school grades and 11,948 in the high school grades. In denomination or special schools 2658 were enrolled. In the universities having degree conferring powers 1664 were reported. These figures do not include those in the public institutions for the deaf, the blind, and the public health and reformatory institutions.

The first settlement in the province was made in 1604 by the French under de Monts; and until the founding of Halifax in 1749 and the final capture of Louisburg in 1758 the population was predominantly French. The missions of the Recollects from 1615 to 1629, and of the Capuchins at La Hève in 1632, transferred by

1636 to Port Royal (Annapolis), were the earliest attempts to introduce a European language into the use of the native inhabitants. In 1643 there were 30 Indian children in the seminaries of the Capuchins in addition to French and Indian externs. The Notre Dame Sisters had very efficient convent school equipment in Louisburg up to the date of its cession in 1763 by the Treaty of Paris.

The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts (S.P.G.) of England assisted in opening English schools as early as 1727 at Annapolis under a Mr. Watt, 1733 at Canso under a Mr. Peden, 1749 with the Halifax founding expedition under a Mr. Hallhead, although the first school established was under the charge of a Mr. Sharrock in 1752. Lunenburg from 1750 to 1754 fought for the teaching of German. But under Vincent in 1762, Jung chronicles: "When attendance at the school was good, hindrances were laid in our way by those who should have given us aid. At this time the Reverend Robert Vincent came into our settlement as English missionary. The services were conducted by him in the English language. He took our German teacher under his control and patronage, paying him a salary of five pounds per annum . . . The German language was entirely abolished from our school, and the order was issued that those who would not study the English language would not be allowed to attend the school . . . Through this the school was broken up."

In 1749, April 6th, the "Lords of Trade and Plantations" in a letter to the S.P.G. Society refer to the population of the province as 20,000, all Roman Catholic French, and recommend some of the schoolmasters to speak French. This policy appears to have been adopted by the S.P.G. as early as April, 1748, when the Society decided to send six schoolmasters to Nova Scotia with a

salary of 15 pounds as against their missionaries' stipend of 70 pounds. As indicating their appreciation of the situation the following intimation was issued by the Society: "The Society will use their best endeavours to appoint some missionaries and schoolmasters who can speak the French language."

This was the time of the inauguration of the "private" and the itinerant teacher, and in their advertisements in the Halifax newspapers of the day, French is indicated to be a desired subject. The first school act in 1766 prescribed no qualifications for a teacher's licence, only indicating the officials who had authority to examine candidates and grant authority to teach. The Halifax Grammar School was established in 1789, the similar school established in Windsor the previous year being preliminary to the establishment of King's College there in 1790.

Owing to the immigration of the Loyalists from the United States the population of the province increased rapidly. Governor Haldimand in 1783 stated that "There are now about 30,000 loyalists arrived in the province". A more careful estimate was made in January 1784, when the total number of new settlers is given as 27,700; old inhabitants 14,000, a total of 41,700, omitting "free negroes". Pictou Academy was established by the legislature in 1816, to accommodate those objecting to the ecclesiastical conditions enforced by the Anglican college. In 1817 the census ordered by the Earl of Dalhousie gave a population of 82,053. Dalhousie College was founded in 1818 in the city of Halifax, but did not enter upon its regular career until 1863, although it functioned under McCulloch of Pictou from 1838 till his death in 1843. Acadia College was established by the Baptists at Wolfville in 1838, St. Francis Xavier by the

Scotch Catholics at Antigonish, in 1854, and St. Mary's by the Irish Catholics in 1860. The French Catholics established College Ste. Anne at Church Point in 1890, and the Holy Heart in Halifax in 1895. And lastly, the Sisters of Charity had university privileges bestowed on their institution at Mount Saint Vincent, Rockingham, in 1925.

Mount Allison University was established by the Methodists in 1841 just beyond the border of Nova Scotia, in Sackville, New Brunswick. It served for the one province as well as the other; but its statistics are not included in those of Nova Scotia which are therefore really lower than they should be, were it possible to credit the students to the provinces from which they come.

The University of Halifax was established by the legislature in 1876 on the plan of London University as an examining university, with the object of unifying the standards for all university degrees. After a trial of a few years the co-operation between the universities was not obtained to the desired degree, and the legislature ceased to make the regular annual grants to it and to them. The free school system came into existence in 1864. The population of the province in 1827 was found to be 153,848, and in 1871, 387,800.

Before 1864 the colleges were strong in foreign languages in the order required for the training of the clergy of the various denominations: Latin, Greek and Hebrew. King's had no professor of modern languages until 1841—fifty years after its establishment. In another fifty years, 1889, the nucleus of an endowment of the chair was secured.

French, German, Spanish and Italian were occasionally taught in the college or high school in a few of the larger centres when the accidental qualifications of a teacher

happened to meet a local desire. But French and then German were the modern languages for which provision was as a rule attempted to be made. Gaelic courses were given for a few years within the last twenty years in Dalhousie and St. Francis Xavier universities, and Dalhousie in 1922 introduced an expanding course in Spanish. The action of the universities had a reflex effect on the development of modern language instruction in the public high schools after the introduction of the free school system and the subsequent development of the common and especially the high school courses of study.

I shall therefore sketch first the development of modern language instruction in the leading university, Dalhousie, which gives us the most advanced type. From the calendar of 1866-7 I find French in the 3rd and 4th year of the arts course, as follows:

FRENCH (3rd year): Pujol's *Grammar* (1st Part). Peschier's *Entretiens Familiers*

(4th year): Pujol's *Grammar* (2nd Part). Peschier's *Causeries Parisiennes*.

GERMAN (3rd year): —Ahn's *Grammar*. Adler's *Reader*.

(4th year): —Otto's *Conversation Grammar*, Adler's *Reader*. A play of Schiller.

By 1906 there were four year courses in French with much more extensive work in each, and in German five year courses. In 1922 Spanish came in.

The current calendar indicates the offering of four full year college courses in French, a special course in commercial French; an introductory course in German, three college courses and a course in commercial German; two courses in college Spanish and a course in commercial Spanish.

Let us now return to the public schools, remembering that in the Nova Scotian system, the high schools are free and under the same boards of trustees in rural districts and villages, and under the same boards of school com-

missioners in towns and cities. There are about 100 school sections with about 150 teachers and about 5000 pupils in French-speaking localities where the instruction is bilingual, approximately 125 of the teachers being graduates of the provincial normal college; all of them have passed their scholastic and professional examinations in English.

From 1865, the year after the introduction of the free school system, we have more or less consistent statistics of the number of pupils taking the various subjects taught. But from 1864 until 1892 there were two terms in the school year—the winter and the summer term—and no annual summary was attempted beyond an estimate of the total number of pupils at school during the year and the yearly cost. Occasionally annual estimates had been made in some of the reports, but these appear to have included pupils in the common school grades who may have been in bilingual schools, or merely commencing French in the common school grade. In the table of statistics displayed elsewhere with the object of picturing the development of attention to the modern languages, the annual contingent is found by summing the numbers given in the tables from county academies and special academies in the earlier years of the free school history. The annual school enrolment is given, and beside it the number reported attending the university colleges (excepting Mt. Allison which is on the New Brunswick side of the provincial boundary). The numbers taking the ancient languages, Latin and Greek, are next given followed by the numbers taking the modern languages, French and German. There are some blanks where the desired statistics could not be conveniently found. But sufficient material to make plain the general trend is exhibited.

Dr. T. H. Rand, appointed first superintendent of education in 1864, initiated the publication of the *Journal of Education*, a monthly at first, but still continued in a more compact form as a semi-annual publication, addressed to school trustees, school boards and teachers. It was an invaluable, if not a necessary, means of developing the system, and communicated the views prevailing in the council of public instruction, as directed by the superintendent, to the educational administration of the whole country simultaneously. Its files indicate the influence of the department in developing the educational sentiment of the country preparatory to the development of new educational legislation.

Early issues of the *Journal*—those for June, July and October, 1867—contain reports of addresses by educational leaders of the time on the question of the claims being then put forward for recognition of the modern languages as proper subjects for study and as deserving of equality of respect with the classics.

In the December number of the *Journal*, 1867, is the intimation of the syllabus of the competition for the Gilchrist scholarship offered in London University to the provinces of Canada. Attention to modern languages was stimulated by the prescriptions for French and German, which were as follows:

The French Subjects are:—For June, 1868, Emile Augier, *Diane*; Alex. Dumas, *La Tulipe Noire*. For June 1869, Ponsard, *L'Honneur et L'Argent*; Erckmann-Chatrian, *Madame Thérèse*.

The German Subjects are:—For June, 1868, Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*. For June, 1869, Goethe, *Egmont*.

Such references to the value of modern languages issued to teachers, and the valuable scholarships for which they would qualify a successful student, tended to stimulate the attention given to French and German, not only in the university colleges, but in the public high schools which

in Nova Scotia were free to all qualified pupils, as were the common schools since the advent of the free school system in 1864.

In the *Journal* for February, 1868, school inspector P. J. Filleul, in a lengthy report to the superintendent notes that

"There are eleven schools in Clare, chiefly French. In some of these considerable proficiency has been made in the grammar of that language, and in dictation; and in nearly all of them is more or less attention paid to English."

In the *Education Report* for 1919, out of 1797 school sections in Nova Scotia, there were 100 bilingual Acadian schools which were served by 147 teachers with class-rooms, out of 3012 employed in the whole province.

In the *Journal*, May 1868, the following reference is made to a high school in one of the small towns, Yarmouth:

"Professor McLennan is Principal of the High School, and in addition to instruction in the higher branches of English education, teaches the classics; Professor Yale is the teacher of modern languages, and imparts instruction in French, German and Italian. These gentlemen are graduates of the University of Toronto, and are said to be well qualified for their work."

In the Pictou academy about the same time Spanish was being taught in addition to French and German. In the city of Halifax opportunities for the study of modern languages were always very ample, on account of the number of private instructors in addition to the public high school departments.

In the *Manual of School Law* for 1888, the *French Principia* is prescribed for grades I and II of the high school, and *Charles XII* and Molière's *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*,—good marks on which at the provincial examination might be accepted by the universities. But only the Latin and Greek classics were specified in the matriculation standards which at that date had been adopted by the university colleges.

In the *Manual of School Law*, 1895, the prescriptions for French were, for grade IX: as in *French Principia*, Part I, or any equivalent, with easy translation and composition exercises. For grade X: as in *French Principia*, Part I and Part II to the end of page 108. For grade XI: Brachet's *Public School Elementary French Grammar*, or an equivalent, and composition, with authors prescribed from year to year: in 1896, De Vigny's *Le Cachet Rouge*, and Daudet's *La Belle Nivernaise*. For grade XII: French grammar and composition; as French authors: 1896, Prosper Mérimée's *Colomba* and Racine's *Esther*. This three years' course was a great advance on the early college courses, especially when it was intended now to be merely a part of the matriculation into the universities.

The German course was a shorter one, beginning in grade X; but it was a three years course as follows: for grade X: German, as in *German Principia*, Part I, or any equivalent. For grade XI: German, *German Principia*, Parts I and II, or any equivalent. For grade XII: German grammar and composition; as German authors: 1896, Hauff's *Das Kalte Herz*. This enabled a matriculant into the university to enter upon a very superior course as compared with the early university courses.

The corresponding high school courses published in the 1927 April *Journal of Education* for the year ending 1928 are as follows:

IX

3. FRENCH: *High School French Grammar*, by Fraser and Squair (Copp, Clark). Lessons I to XXV inclusive. (For the year beginning August, 1928, the revised edition of this book may be prescribed.) Bertenshaw's *First Conversational French Reader* (Longmans), Lessons 1 to 25 inclusive.

X

4. FRENCH: *High School French Grammar*, Lessons XXVI to LI inclusive with a review of the preceding lessons. (For year beginning August, 1928, the revised edition of this book may be prescribed.) *First Conversational Reader*, Lessons 26 to the end of the book including the section on "Conversation".

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XI

4. FRENCH: Manley's *Eight French Stories* (Allyn & Bacon). *High School French Grammar*, Lessons LII—LXXXIII inclusive, with a review of the preceding lessons. (For year beginning August, 1928, the revised edition of this book may be prescribed.)

XII

4. FRENCH: *High School French Grammar* complete; Theuriet's *L'Abbé Daniel*; Labiche et Martin's *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon*; Hunkin's *Favorite French Poems*.

X

5. GERMAN: Lang and Needler's *High School German Grammar* (Ryerson); first 16 exercises, with *Reading Selections* to corresponding and appropriate parts of the *Grammar*. *Gluckauf (A First German Reader)* (Ginn), pages 1 to 66 inclusive.

XI

5. GERMAN: Lang and Needler's *High School German Grammar* (Ryerson), to end of page 109 and appropriate parts of the *Grammar*. Bagster-Collins, *First German Reader* (Holt), pages 1 to 41 inclusive. *Gluckauf (A First German Reader)* (Ginn), pages 69 to 171 inclusive.

XII

5. GERMAN: Lang and Needler's *High School German Grammar* (Ryerson), reviewed thoroughly. Bagster-Collins, *A First German Reader* (Holt), pages 45 to 88 inclusive. Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*, the whole five Acts.

Since the close of the world war both Gaelic and Spanish were authorized to be taught as options in the public high schools, and in anticipation of the possible development of such studies, which were loudly called for by individuals from various quarters, a space for these as well as other subjects was provided in the forms of the "returns" in the public schools. There has as yet, however, been no significant development of these tendencies up to date.

For the last thirty-five years the register prescribed for the school recommended oral practice and recitation in all foreign languages, ancient as well as modern, and efforts more or less successful were being made to give credits for oral reading, recitation and conversation.

No special modern language teachers have up to date been provided, nor special modern language inspectors.

No arrangements have ever been made for the organi-

zation of modern or ancient language associations in the province, although there have always been scholars who associated themselves with such organizations outside the province.

It will be seen from the table of statistics that by the year 1908, modern languages became predominant over the ancient languages, contemporaneous with the creation of the Advisory Board of Education which existed until 1925. German dropped from 257 in the high schools in 1915 to 118 in 1920—two years' retardation of popular reaction—but rose again gradually higher than ever before by 1926, when German was taken by 572 students. The number taking French increased, however, from 3768 in 1914 to 8625 in 1926; while Greek fluctuated from 25 to 86, and Latin grew from 2910 to 5266.

CONSPECTUS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES
IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NOVA SCOTIA

Year	School Attendance	College Attendance	Taking Latin	Taking Greek	Taking French	Taking German	
1865	60,000						Rand
6	71,059						
7	83,048						
8	88,707						
9	93,732	202					
1870	94,496	286	317	101	240	10	Hunt
1	92,858	322	361	115	194	8	
2	91,367	255	356	155	219	9	
3	93,759	298	393	128	211	18	
4	93,510	284	396	120	278	7	
5	94,029	297	421	155	238	6	
6	94,162	340	470	182	203	21	
7	100,710	373	864	84	132	36	Allison
8	101,538	369	738	77	125	21	
9	99,094	411	788	83	245	24	
1880	93,700	380	414	91	249	12	
(Table including Com- mon Sch.)			(2155)	(77)	(2500)	..	
1	98,148		752	96			
2	95,912		913	137			
3	98,307		931	93			
4	101,069		1067	121			

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Year	School Attendance	College Attendance	Taking Latin	Taking Greek	Taking French	Taking German	
5	103,287		933	149			
6	105,410		1012	178	591	26	
7	105,137		793	182	664	46	
8	105,231		1137	186	699	78	
9	103,688		1282	197	660	108	
1890	103,597		1403	184	614	65	
1	101,724		1581	235	617	55	MacKay
2	102,586		1386	269	725	68	
3	94,890	(9 months)	1468	158	763	51	
4	98,170	543	1538	169	816	55	
5	100,555	495	1506	181	851	69	
6	101,032	533	1610	225	997	73	
7	101,150	550	1493	201	973	77	
8	101,203	788	1824	183	995	132	
9	100,129	818	1732	224	951	129	
1900	100,129	678	1595	188	996	231	
1	98,140	686	1635	172	946	156	
2	99,059	642	1424	113	1176	118	
3	98,768	666	1357	115	1153	147	
4	96,886	687	1482	116	1365	233	
5	100,252	736	1592	106	1602	305	
6	100,332	569	1650	108	1709	298	
7	100,007	963	1878	185	1901	427	
8	100,105	1018	1974	68	1928	191	
9	101,680	1145	2083	24	2121	274	
1910	102,035	1125	2429	59	2589	225	
1	102,910	1036	2586	40	3087	382	
2	103,984	899	2775	33	3363	298	
3	105,269	1081	2846	42	3456	321	
4	106,351	1084	2910	35	3763	314	
5	107,768	1197	3036	25	4302	357	
6	109,189	1150	3055	46	4431	287	
7	109,032	826	3045	50	4486	222	
8	108,097	801	3153	54	4834	169	
9	106,982	1068	3146	52	4814	120	
1920	108,096	1468	3541	26	5322	118	
1	109,483	1568	3517	45	5619	214	
2	114,229	1547	4204	58	7110	234	
3	114,458	1561	4606	78	8028	197	
4	111,594	1653	4771	86	7971	390	
5	112,352	1693	5110	53	8567	523	
6	112,391	1664	5266	52	8625	572	

—A. H. MacKAY,
Superintendent Emeritus of Education,
Nova Scotia.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

The only modern language which has been taught in the educational institutions of Prince Edward Island is French.

The actual population of Prince Edward Island is only 87,000. The French Acadians constitute 12,000 of this number. There are 600 public schools. Of these, 60 are Acadian-French, with an enrolment of approximately 1,800 pupils. In these Acadian-French schools daily instruction in French reading, grammar and composition is given by teachers who hold the regular provincial licences but who have also a good speaking knowledge of the French language. These French schools had their origin about 1830. From that time until about 1860 instruction was given in the French language only. At present about one-third of the time is given to French; the balance is devoted to English.

Prior to 1830 practically no public aid had been extended to education. In 1830 the first Board of Education was appointed, and common and grammar schools were established. However, education seems to have made slow progress until the year 1852, when "The Free Education Act" was passed. In 1863 certain important amendments were adopted. Among these was one authorizing the payment of a bonus of £5 to any teacher who taught French to at least ten pupils. Grammar schools were also provided for—two for each county. Teachers for these schools had to be certified as capable of teaching French. This seems to have been the first recognition given to the teaching of French in the public schools of the province. Still, as late as 1876, there were only six students taking French in the provincial normal school, and in all the grammar schools of the province only twenty-five pupils were studying French.

In 1860 the Prince of Wales College was established

as a public educational institution. French was given a place on its curriculum from the beginning but only a very few students (young women) took advantage of it.

In 1877 "The Public Schools Act" which, with but slight modifications, still constitutes our educational law, was passed. This Act gave a new impetus to education. Three grades of teachers were established. For teachers of the first class, French was to be optional, though in practice nearly all candidates wrote a French paper. French was made optional for second class teachers in 1882, while third class teachers were not given this option.

In 1892 French was made obligatory for entrance to Prince of Wales College and the Provincial Normal School. The result of this has been that a large majority of the schools of the province have added French to their course of studies. It might be mentioned that nearly all the public schools send up pupils for matriculation to Prince of Wales College and the Provincial Normal School every year.

At present French is obligatory for all candidates preparing for teachers' licences. For matriculation to the Normal School the amount of work prescribed is 118 pages of *The Ontario High School French Grammar* by Fraser and Squair. For teachers preparing for a second class licence, an additional 75 pages is required. For teachers preparing for a first class licence the Fraser and Squair grammar is completed, and such texts as *Le Petit Chose*, *L'Abbé Constantin*, *Les Aventures du Dernier Abencérage* are read. During the present year 300 students are in attendance at this institution. Each year from 500 to 600 candidates present themselves for matriculation. The total number taking French in the public schools and in the Prince of Wales College would be about 1,200.

The Roman Catholics of the province maintain a diocesan classical college—St. Dunstan's—affiliated to Laval University, Quebec. This college has been in operation since 1854. French is obligatory for all students. A large number of French-Canadian and Acadian students are in attendance, so there is a good opportunity for the English-speaking students to obtain a speaking knowledge of French. About 200 students are registered at this college. The work done is modelled somewhat on the lines followed in the public schools for the junior years. For the senior years composition and literature courses are given. The teacher is usually a graduate of one of the Quebec classical colleges.

In nearly all cases the grammar-translation method is used. With the present large classes and the limited time devoted to the work, it seems the only method whereby any considerable body of work can be accomplished.*

QUEBEC

FRENCH TEACHING IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS

For a great many years French has been a compulsory subject in the higher grades of all the English schools of the Province of Quebec, but the results obtained from the teaching of this subject were, until recent years, most unsatisfactory. In the first place, French was treated, from an educational point of view, very much as

*The committee regrets its failure to obtain an account of modern language instruction in New Brunswick. At the Academy of Fredericton, instruction in French was introduced for the first time in 1848 when a chair of modern languages was established, and occupied by Professor D'Avray for twenty-three years.—President R. A. Falconer, *The Tradition of Liberal Education in Canada, Canadian Historical Review*, 1927, pp. 99 ff.

one of the dead languages, that is to say, the pupils were carefully drilled in grammatical rules and fine distinctions as to form, and were taught to translate into English, special emphasis thus being placed upon the knowledge which is acquired through the eye, while the training of the ear to distinguish and interpret the sounds of the French language, and the training of the tongue quickly and accurately to reproduce them, were largely neglected.

Some forty years ago what was known as the natural method, the method intended to reverse the order just mentioned, began to receive the attention and approval of teachers and directors of education in the province. From that time efforts have been directed towards the teaching in our schools of the French language as a living, useful instrument for the exchange of thought.

In the Protestant schools of Montreal it was soon discovered that the new method failed to accomplish the expected results for various reasons, the following two in particular: first, teachers were not sufficiently trained in method, and, second, there was a great difference amongst teachers themselves in regard to knowledge of the French tongue. As a consequence, pupils who might be well taught under an efficient, almost bilingual, teacher might be promoted at the end of a year into a class whose teacher was deficient both in knowledge of the language and in the method of teaching French. To overcome these difficulties a thoroughly competent and highly trained man was appointed as supervisor of French teaching, Mr. H. H. Curtis.

He came to the Montreal High School after nine years of successful experience as high school principal, and there took French as one of his subjects. He soon reached the conclusion that the French work in the high

and in the lower schools contributory to it did not adequately meet the needs of the community.

The natural method was at that time being developed in the United States by Sauveur, Van Dahl and others, inspired by the writings of Viëtor and his associates who launched the "Reform" in Germany about 1880.

The German movement was based on phonetics, the American ignored phonetics. The lead of the Americans was followed because our primary teachers at that time were ill prepared in phonetics. Mr. Curtis proposed that the natural method be introduced in the primary grades where the study of French began. He was surprised to learn that this had been attempted some years before by Dr. S. P. Robins, superintendent of the Protestant Schools of Montreal, and by his successor, Mr. E. W. Arthy. Although their attempt had been abandoned, it prepared the way, and teaching by the natural method was begun with Worman's *First Book* as a guide.

Mr. L. R. Gregor joined Mr. Curtis in an effort to give the high school work a practical turn while awaiting the gradual adoption of the new method in the lower classes. With this in view a progressive reader was published in 1890. The new method soon justified itself, but the new course called for fuller supervision, and Mr. Curtis became Director of French.

During the next few years he brought out the five parts of a five years' junior course, the distinctive feature of which was the abundant help it provided for non-specialist teachers who needed to be supplied with language forms as well as tricks of presentation and practice.

While this was going on many teachers studied French in classes provided by the Board, and with private teachers. This experimental work was now carried on

independently of outside sources of information. The Americans had given it up, and the experience of the German and English teachers was not easily available.

Of those who helped the movement along Dr. Robins must be mentioned first. His early exposition and defence of the principles of the "Reform" probably prevented the opposition which arose elsewhere. The co-operation of the Normal School, of which he became principal, was essential and was not lacking. Madame Sophie Cornu was French professor there. Mr. Gregor did good work with the *Primary Readers* and in launching the methods in primary classes. Miss L. E. Lawless, Mr. R. S. Hall, Miss Margaret Ross and others taught brilliantly for years in high school grades. Dr. Walter, professor of French in McGill, contributed largely to the success of the movement for oral teaching. He criticized the work in Montreal because of a lack of phonetics, a *sine qua non* in Europe. With Dr. Walter's competent help, phonetics was introduced in 1906, and this brought about a reconstruction of the course. Mr. Curtis, before attempting this task, spent several months in Germany, France and England.

In 1913 Mr. Curtis retired and was succeeded as director of French by Mr. F. R. Robert, who had previously served under Mr. Curtis, and who has efficiently continued the work begun by Mr. Curtis. The latter has recently said: "It is not easy to estimate the results of our work. Our teachers of to-day, especially those trained in schools employing the new method, are far better equipped than those of the eighties. Teachers and pupils who come to us from other parts of Canada, from the United States or from the British Islands, are usually far inferior as to knowledge of French to those of our own province. Our graduates can be taught in French in

high school and university classes. In my time this was not done, and could not be done at McGill."

In the meantime the Montreal influence was having its effect upon the work of the country schools, especially of the higher grades, and in 1911 plans were projected for the improvement of the French work there. A legislative appropriation of \$3,000. was made for the purpose of encouraging the teaching of French in English schools. A summer school for the training of specialists was organized by the department of education and held in Montreal, extending over three weeks of the summer vacation. This school was open only to teachers who had had professional training and successful class experience, and who were able to submit satisfactorily to a conversational test before entering the school. Obviously, not much could be done in the way of teaching the language in three weeks, but the time was devoted to training in the best modern methods of teaching French, to actual teaching of children for purposes of illustration, and to correcting faults of pronunciation. At the same time conversational groups were formed, so that during the three weeks French should be the language of all who attended the school. The director of the school, Mr. F. R. Robert, was a specialist of good reputation and spoke French quite as well as English, and was assisted by a competent staff. In recent years Mr. R. E. Raguin has carried on the work efficiently. At the close of the session, certificates, when deserved, were awarded, those of the first class being permanent and those of the second class temporary. The holders of the latter certificates were required to attend another session, or to acquire during the year such fluency as to bring them to a reasonable standard of excellence. One hundred and eighty-five certificates have been issued, while about

fifty teachers have attended unsuccessfully, or simply as observers.

In order to encourage the school boards to have specialists in French who should teach French in all the grades, a bonus from the Legislative appropriation was offered, \$200. being given for the employment of a teacher holding a first class certificate, and \$150. for one having a second class certificate. Under these plans some twenty-five specialists were soon employed in our rural high schools, and now there are about seventy in the rural and city schools together. However, the scheme was not complete. Supervision and co-ordination of the work was lacking. There were reasons for suspecting that some of the holders of specialists' certificates were teaching French only part of the time, and that some classes were still left to the mercy of the teacher untrained for French work.

In 1918 a special inspection was begun by Miss L. E. Tanner, then an officer of the department, and continued as only a part of her work until 1922, when she was made full time supervisor of French teaching in the English schools of the province, the schools of Montreal and Westmount being excepted as already under competent supervision in this work.

At the same time a most important change was made in the regulations regarding the June examinations. For many years the oral method was compulsory in all schools from the fourth year of school life, but the examinations for promotion and for the high school leaving certificate, known as the government examinations, were all written. As a consequence the teachers were tempted, oftentimes beyond their powers of resistance, to stress the work in grammar and translation to the neglect of the oral work which was not properly

tested. While the prestige of the teacher and of the school profited, the oral work suffered.

In 1922, with the appointment of the full-time supervisor, it was decided to give fifty per cent. of the marks in French for the oral examination, which she now conducts in all the schools in which specialists are employed, both in the cities and in the rural high schools. McGill, upon the advice of Professor du Roure, at once consented to accept the fifty-fifty plan of marking for its intending matriculants residing in the Province of Quebec, and indeed has marked its students in arts upon the same plan since 1922. These facts have admittedly placed the oral teaching of French on a sound basis, and have contributed much to its effectiveness.

In the normal school for forty years, and in McGill University for some years, all the lectures and class exercises in French are given in that language. This has been made possible only by the fact that the schools have prepared the way by having a large proportion of bilingual teachers as well as specialists on their staffs, and that in a mixed population ample opportunities are offered apart from the class-room for acquiring the French tongue.

ONTARIO

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PREFACE

A hundred years ago Dr. John Strachan, as president of the General Board of Education, submitted a detailed report to the Lieutenant-Governor on the state of the schools in Upper Canada. In none of the eleven grammar schools then in operation did he mention French as a subject of instruction. In point of fact there were that

year in the grammar schools of the province—four scholars studying French. But their number dwindled down to two before the year was up, and ten years later there were none. Classics and mathematics held the focus of attention.

It is a long cry from 1828 to 1928. A year ago—these are the latest available figures—there were in the provincial secondary schools under government control over sixty thousand pupils engaged in the study of French as well as many hundreds in German. There were more pupils learning French than Latin, and more learning German than Greek. How this transformation has come about will be told in the following pages.

In the present work the writer purposes to trace the origin and development of the study of modern languages in the Ontario high school, and thus makes an excursion into a region hitherto but scantily explored—the history of the Ontario secondary school curriculum. Only one side of this curriculum is here singled out for special investigation, but an attempt is made to show its relation to the larger bearings of the subject and, in a measure, also to weave the story of modern language study into the general history of education in the province. For, obviously, the development of a school subject cannot be studied either in isolation from the larger programme of which it forms a part or without regard to the general educational movements or the interplay of forces which give rise to them.

It is well to state here that the following account deals with the teaching of modern languages in the English schools of Ontario. The schools in French or German settlements, staffed and attended by French or German teachers and pupils, do not come within the purview of the present discussion, since these schools do not appear

to have exerted any influence on the study of modern languages in the English schools.

The writer cannot resist the pleasure of acknowledging his indebtedness to a number of persons who have in various ways helped him in the preparation of this work. Thanks are due to Mr. R. H. B. Cook, draughting instructor of the London Technical and Commercial High School, for the precision and skill with which he has executed the drawings which appear in the history. The writer is indebted to his colleague, Miss Doris Plewes, and his niece, Miss Ellen Dworkin, for obtaining some information for him. He wishes to thank sincerely Professor A. H. Young of Trinity College for replies to enquiries. To the Canadian Committee on Modern Languages grateful acknowledgment is made for assistance in securing some data. Professor Fred Landon, librarian of the University of Western Ontario, has read all the proofsheets as well as the manuscript of the earlier chapters, and sincere acknowledgment is here made for his kindness. The author is under obligation to Mr. A. Stevenson, late of the London Normal School, who has read the entire typescript and given him the benefit of his critical literary judgment, and he owes thanks to Mrs. Goldstick for help of various kinds, and particularly for typing the whole manuscript.

CHAPTER I

THE PIONEER PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA

When the nineteenth century opened only a very small part of Ontario, then known as Upper Canada, was either inhabited or habitable. It was for the most part an unsettled wilderness. In 1798, according to a settler of that time, York, the capital of Upper Canada, was "a dreary,

dismal place, not even possessing the characteristics of a village" and lacking all "the ordinary signs of civilization."¹ What scattered settlements there were in those days were mainly confined to the shores of the St. Lawrence and the Niagara, Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. Here had settled bodies of United Empire Loyalists and small groups of Scottish and Irish immigrants.

Proximity to the waterways was essential since these constituted the chief means of travel and transportation. The roads were in a primitive state; in fact they were little better than forest paths and were frequently impassable. Communication by land continued to be bad for many years. In 1816 the journey between York (Toronto) and Niagara took four days,² and in 1819, we are told, the trip from Cornwall to York, a distance of 300 miles, was "a tedious and expensive undertaking."³

At the beginning of the century Upper Canada had a population of about 50,000. York, though the seat of the government, had in 1819 only 1,200 inhabitants, and "there were but three brick edifices in the town."⁴ The other most important centres of population of the time were Kingston and Newark (Niagara).

In these larger places, and in a few other centres there sprang up during the pioneering days of the last decade of the eighteenth century and the early years of the nineteenth century a number of private secondary schools, the forerunners of the grammar schools and high schools of later years. The earliest of these was the Rev. John Stuart's "Select Classical School" at Cataraqui (afterwards Kingston), opened in 1785, during the first years of

¹See Caniff, *History of the Province of Ontario*, pp. 530-531.

²Scadding, *Toronto of Old*, p. 49.

³Bethune, *Memoirs of Bishop Strachan*, p. 40.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 4.

the settlement of the United Empire Loyalists in Upper Canada; the most famous was the Cornwall school, kept by John Strachan from 1804 to 1812. Other notable schools were the Rev. Robert Addison's school at Newark, which was opened in 1792, and the "Classical School" of Dr. W. W. Baldwin, father of the Hon. Robert Baldwin, established at York in 1802. There were besides a number of other lesser known schools.

The pioneer private schools and the early grammar schools of Upper Canada were patterned after the model of the secondary schools in the motherland. There was a conscious attempt to transplant in the new country the educational ideals and practices of the old land. Hence the curriculum in these early schools was predominantly classico-mathematical; the absorbing subjects were Latin and mathematics. Along with the more advanced studies in these schools instruction was also given in the elementary school subjects, for there was, of course, no strict differentiation between elementary and secondary schools. The focal place in the programme of studies was, however, held by the languages of antiquity and mathematics.

Under these circumstances we do not expect to find that French was taught in the pioneer private schools of Upper Canada in the closing years of the eighteenth and the opening years of the nineteenth centuries. In fact, we have no certainty that this language was taught anywhere in Upper Canada before the second decade of the nineteenth century. The available information about the earliest schools is meagre and fragmentary. Our knowledge of some of them is limited to the name of the master and the location of the school. In only a few cases has the curriculum been preserved for us. Of the earliest of these schools, that of the Rev. Dr. John Stuart

at Kingston, opened in 1785, we know very little beyond the fact that it was a "Select Classical School." We do, however, possess some precise information respecting the programme of studies pursued both at Baldwin's and Strachan's schools.

Dr. William Warren Baldwin opened his "Classical School" at York in 1803. His notice of opening which appeared on December 17, 1802, outlined a programme of studies, typical of the schools of the time:

"Understanding that some of the gentlemen of this town have expressed much anxiety for the establishment of a Classical School, Doctor Baldwin begs leave to inform them and the public that he intends on Monday, the third of January next, to open a school, in which he will instruct twelve boys in reading, writing, the classics and arithmetic.

The terms are for each boy eight guineas per annum, to be paid quarterly. One guinea extra as entrance fee, and one cord of wood to be supplied by each boy on the opening of the school."¹

It is clear that French had no place in the curriculum of Baldwin's school at York.

Nor is there any likelihood that it was taught by the Rev. John Strachan (later Archdeacon of York) at his Cornwall school which was opened in 1804, despite his evident interest in and advocacy of the subject. The course of study at Mr. Strachan's school was unusually comprehensive; the range of subjects was astonishingly modern, although the place of pre-eminence continued to be held by the traditional subjects. Such was the fame of Mr. Strachan's school that numerous accounts of the curriculum have come down to us. None of them make any mention of French. A full account of the curriculum in Strachan's school will be found in the following chapter.

¹Quoted by Hodgins, *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, p. 21.

The pioneer secondary schools of Upper Canada, as already indicated, were primarily schools for the study of classics and mathematics. In this they followed British precedents. They were designed to educate the gentlemen of Upper Canada, and a knowledge of classical lore, in Upper Canada as in Britain, was a mark of the gentleman. Although the other more practical studies entering into a complete education were not neglected, the goal of a secondary education was proficiency in Latin and mathematics. The modern languages had not yet found their way into the school curriculum.

CHAPTER II

STRACHAN AND THE TEACHING OF FRENCH

The Rev. John Strachan, afterwards Bishop of Toronto, was one of the earliest advocates of the study of French in the grammar schools of Upper Canada, and was probably one of the first teachers of that language in the English schools of the province. So vast was Strachan's influence on education in Upper Canada that his advocacy of French was not without effect on the schools.

Dr. Strachan was the educational genius of the province for nearly half a century. Most of the early educational legislation is traceable to his influence, an influence which is also discernible in the educational theory and practice of his day. John Strachan arrived in Canada an impecunious but gifted young graduate of a Scottish university to accept a position as teacher, and remained actively engaged in the business of teaching for twenty-three years after his arrival. His deep concern in education did not abate throughout his long life.

John Strachan came to this country upon the invitation of the Hon. Richard Cartwright, one of the leading

citizens of Kingston, with the expectation of being put in charge of a proposed college or university. Although only twenty-two years of age at the time, he was considered well qualified for the post, both because of his academic attainments (he was a graduate of King's College, Aberdeen, and had been a student of divinity at the University of St. Andrews) and because of his proficiency as a teacher, gained during two years' teaching experience in Scotland. Upon his arrival in Kingston on the last day of the year 1799 he was unspeakably mortified to learn that the project of founding a college had come to grief. Strachan remained in Canada simply because he had not enough money to pay for his passage back. For the next three and a half years he was tutor to the sons of the Hon. Richard Cartwright and a few other select pupils in the town of Kingston. He remained there until 1803, when he was ordained as Anglican minister and made rector of the church in the village of Cornwall.

Here he opened a classical school which presently grew famous and attracted pupils from all parts of the country, becoming the leading school of the province. This school was later (1807) converted into the grammar school of the Eastern District. From Cornwall Strachan went to York in 1812, as Rector of York and headmaster of the Home District Grammar School, better known as "The Old Blue School". He held this position for eleven years, relinquishing it only in 1823, when he was appointed chairman of the newly created General Board of Education for Upper Canada. Strachan secured the charter for King's College (afterwards the University of Toronto) in 1827 and was its president until 1849. He was also the founder (1851) and first chancellor of the University of Trinity College. Strachan's growing fame and recognition were demonstrated by his appoint-

ment as a member of the Executive Council and the Legislative Council of Upper Canada, his elevation to the dignity of Archdeacon of York and eventually to that of Bishop of Toronto. Such, in outline, was the career of the great teacher who had a larger share than any other man in his day in shaping the educational destiny of Ontario.

On a number of occasions Strachan, as has been said, recommended the teaching of French in the secondary schools of Upper Canada and, as we shall see, introduced it himself into the Home District Grammar School.

As early as 1815 Dr. Strachan counselled that French be put in the curriculum of the district grammar schools:

"The following branches of education should be taught at the district grammar schools, with such other branches as the teacher and trustees may think fit, videlicet: The Latin, French and English languages,—writing, arithmetic, geography and practical mathematics."¹

The foregoing is an excerpt from a "Report on Education" written by Strachan in 1815. The report is in the form of a series of resolutions on university, secondary, and elementary education. With respect to the grammar schools he recommends the submission of annual reports by the trustees on the state of the schools, annual public examinations, and the gratuitous tuition of ten scholars at each grammar school. These recommendations were carried out before long. Nor was Strachan's advocacy of French in 1815 entirely fruitless, for there were in the following year at least two grammar schools in which French was taught.

Dr. Strachan, it appears, remained steadfast in his opinion that French was a desirable subject for the

¹Quoted by Hodgins from Strachan's Private Letter Books, *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. V, p. 304.

grammar school curriculum. To combat the evils attendant upon the unchecked diversity in the programmes of the grammar schools, Strachan, as president of the General Board of Education, drew up in 1829 an outline of study for these schools. His object was to introduce into them "a greater uniformity of system, and to supply, in some measure, the want of experience to younger teachers."¹

This proposed programme of studies is noteworthy for its inclusion of French. He recommends that French be begun in the second year and be continued throughout the remainder of the course. The outlined course was recommended only, since the Board had no power to enforce any curriculum.

In a brochure on the "Management of Grammar Schools"², published in 1829, in which he outlines a comprehensive curriculum for these schools, Strachan mentions French among the subjects suited for study in the grammar schools. French is to be begun in the second year of the five year course, at about the age of ten. It thus takes precedence, in his scheme, in point of time of beginning, over Greek, which is not to be commenced before the third year. Text-books are suggested for the various studies, but no specific ones are recommended for French, due, no doubt, to the dearth of such books. It is not clear whether or not his suggested list of subjects is meant to be arranged in what he considered to be their order of importance. If such was the intention, then French is obviously given a position of subordination, for it is placed, in every year, at the end of the list. The

¹From Strachan's report to the Lieutenant-Governor, quoted in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, pp. 265ff.

²*A Letter to the Rev. A. N. Bethune . . . on the Management of Grammar Schools.*

place of honour in every case is accorded to Latin, which is followed in order by Greek (from the third year on), English (which comprised also civil and natural history as well as geography), mathematics, and lastly French. The proposed course of study has many points of interest, both illustrating Strachan's conception of the content of a secondary school education and throwing light on the practice in the best types of grammar schools of the time. The aim of secondary school education, according to Strachan, is "the preparing of youth for the university" and also "to qualify young men for the different professions", if they do not desire to proceed to the university. The course outlined is of five years' duration. This continued to be the typical length of the grammar school course until 1871.

In his pamphlet Strachan says, in respect to the course suggested for the grammar schools: "In presenting a detailed account of the mode of carrying this course of study into effect, I shall not indulge in any imaginary process, but give you the actual practice of a school which flourished twenty-five years in this province". This need not be taken to signify literally that every item and book mentioned was studied at the Cornwall school. It is the *mode* of carrying the course into effect that he wishes to present,—the methods pursued and the manner in which the classes were conducted. He is concerned not so much with the subject matter as with the method of presentation. This he proceeds to exemplify in detail and at considerable length. The phrase "this course" must not be taken to imply that we have here an exact reproduction of the programme of his school in Cornwall, for it is reasonably certain, from the evidence that we possess, that French, at any rate, did not form part of the programme. This subject, as far as can be

ascertained, was not introduced into Strachan's school until after he removed to York.

In the pamphlet referred to above he describes in minute detail the manner in which every hour of every day of the week was employed in his school.¹ He designates it, as we have seen, as "a school which flourished for twenty-five years in this province", referring apparently to his combined experience at Kingston, Cornwall, and York, but more particularly, it would seem, to the practice at Cornwall. French is not mentioned among the subjects studied. The school was opened with prayer at 9 o'clock in the morning. The first hour of the school day was spent in reading the register of the preceding day and in reading and discussing selections from history. At the same time the English reading classes were heard by the second master and the monitors. From 10 o'clock to 11.30 Greek and Latin were taken up. Between 11.30 and 1 o'clock, when school was dismissed, the classes were exercised in writing. The first hour of the afternoon (2 o'clock to 3 o'clock) was spent, by the more advanced pupils, in the study of mathematics, while the lower class had another lesson in English reading. The last hour of the day was devoted to the classics. Besides the daily routine of studies there were some subjects that were taken up only once a week in place of some of the regular daily subjects. On Monday there was practice in elocution, on Tuesday morning there was a lesson in civil history, and in the afternoon a lesson in arithmetic. On Wednesday natural history was taken up, on Thursday geography, on Friday, English grammar, and on Saturday, religion and composition. Thus it is clear that French had no place in the programme.

Contemporary accounts of the studies pursued in

¹Cf. Bethune, *Memoirs of Bishop Strachan*, Chap. III.

Strachan's school at Cornwall make no mention of French. Dr. Hodgins¹ quotes an account published in the *Upper Canada Gazette and Canadian Oracle* (August 4, 1805) of a public examination held in the school in 1805. The subjects of the examination are enumerated:

"The Latin classics, arithmetic, bookkeeping, elements of mathematics, elements of geography, of natural and civil history. The boys acquitted themselves with great credit; neither is it easy to declare in which branch of learning they succeeded best. The whole was interspersed with different pieces of poetry and prose, many of the most humorous cast, composed for the occasion."

From a series of letters, addressed to their parents by George and Thomas Ridout,² scholars at the Cornwall school, and written in 1806 and 1807, we catch a glimpse of the things taught:

"... We came on pretty well in Sallust and we have begun Euclid. Mr. Strachan has given us books. . . . The Euclid we have is Simson's. Tom comes on well in his ciphering and bookkeeping, and is at the head of his reading class, which is a large one, consisting of twelve or fourteen boys."

and in another letter:

"... I come on middling well, and am going into book-keeping on Monday. I got a quire of paper to-day from Mr. Strachan, to make my book. Mr. Strachan has not struck me yet, nor has he been angry. We have finished our grammar and are learning it by heart every morning.

"... We stay up every night till about twelve or one o'clock, and we have got so used to it that we don't mind it. We repeat four problems a week, and I am two from the head."

Dr. A. N. Bethune, Bishop Strachan's successor in the See, who had himself been a pupil at Strachan's Cornwall

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, p. 34.

²Lady Edgar, *Ten Years in Upper Canada*, Chap. II.

school and later an assistant teacher at his school in York, has furnished us with a minute account of the course of studies pursued at the school in Cornwall.¹ He enumerates in considerable detail and with profuse comment the subjects taught and the methods employed, mentioning reading, dictation, Latin, arithmetic, algebra, writing, geography, natural history, civil history, debating, and versification, but makes no allusion to French.

If French had no place in the programme of studies at Strachan's Cornwall school, it was not, as we have seen, because of his indifference to this subject. As early as 1802, when still in Kingston, he had entertained the project of going to Lower Canada to gain practice in spoken French. In a letter dated October 23, 1802, and addressed to his friend, Dr. Brown, professor of natural history at St. Andrew's, Scotland, he tells of the "probability of a church becoming vacant (apparently referring to the Scotch Presbyterian Church in Montreal) by the time my engagement expires, worth about £200 cur. or £180 sterling; if that happen, I shall accept of it—if not—I shall first go to the Lower Province and learn to speak French, etc."²

At his school in Cornwall he was probably hampered, to some extent, from completely carrying into effect his conception of a liberal education. The exigencies of circumstances demanded some compromise. The desire of the parents for the early completion of their sons' schooling in order that they might embark in mercantile pursuits had to be met. Strachan complains that in those early days the education of boys had to be largely of a "practical nature and far inferior to what would be

¹*Memoirs of Bishop Strachan*, Chap. III.

²Letter in the Ontario Bureau of Archives, pk. 63.

necessary. . . . Their parents are anxious to get them introduced to business and they cannot appreciate the advantages of a liberal system of education."¹

In sponsoring the study of French, as in many of his other educational tenets and practices, he was in advance of his time. Although the programme of studies at Cornwall evidently did not comprise that language, we know with certainty, as will be shown in the next chapter, that French had a place, though admittedly an inferior one, in the curriculum of the Home District Grammar School at York, in 1816, under the mastership of Dr. Strachan. If, as seems probable, Strachan himself gave the instruction in the subject, he has the distinction of being one of the first teachers of French in the province.²

CHAPTER III

FRENCH IN THE EARLY GRAMMAR SCHOOLS (1807-1853)

The story of the study of French in the early grammar schools of Upper Canada cannot always be traced with accuracy in respect to all the details. The available data are often sketchy in character. In the information that has come down to us there are many gaps that a diligent inquiry has been unable to fill. However, in spite of numerous obscurities of detail, the general features of the story are clear enough. It is manifest that French did

¹In a letter to Dr. Brown, dated Cornwall, July 13, 1816, in "Strachan Papers" in the Ontario Bureau of Archives.

²I quote the following from a note kindly furnished to me by Professor A. H. Young of Trinity College, Toronto, an authority on Bishop Strachan: "As I have not found any real evidence as to his having an assistant in his school at York so early as 1816, he must have handled the French himself. As his assistants appear to have been, for the most part, young men who were reading theology with him or who were acting as his curates, he is more likely than they to have been able to teach the subject effectively." Professor Young also informs me that a few French volumes were included among the books bequeathed by Strachan to Trinity College.

not obtain a firm foothold in the curriculum of the Upper Canada grammar schools before about the middle of the nineteenth century. Instruction in French prior to that time was largely incidental. It was taught in very few schools and either to single pupils or very small groups. There were neither teachers qualified to give instruction in the subject, nor was it generally regarded as a legitimate grammar school study. It was considered to be at best merely a desirable polite accomplishment.

The earliest information about the teaching of French in the secondary schools of Upper Canada that a patient search has been able to bring to light out of the past dates back to 1816. There were in 1816 two grammar schools giving instruction in French, the Home District School at York and the Eastern District School at Cornwall. The York and Cornwall schools were two of the eight district schools that had been created, in 1807, under the authority of the Public School Act of that year.

The year 1807 is a memorable date in the educational history of Ontario. It is the earliest important landmark on the road to state-aided and state-controlled education. That year saw the passing of the first effective, though still very rudimentary, legislation dealing with education. This legislative measure was the embryo from which, in the course of time, the educational structure of the Province was evolved. The Act of 1807 effectively provided, for the first time, for a modicum of state aid to education. Prior to that year the support of school education in Upper Canada was entirely a matter of voluntary effort. The schools had been wholly dependent for their subsistence either on fees or, in the case of the schools for the poor, on charity.¹

¹Only in one or two cases had a meagre subsidy been given by the Government.

The Act of 1807 created eight grammar schools, as these secondary schools soon came to be styled,¹ one in each of the eight districts of the province. It apportioned an annual stipend of £100, payable out of the provincial treasury, to each of the eight masters of these schools. These masters were to be selected by the trustees of the districts concerned. The only central control stipulated by the Act was in the appointment of the trustees and the acceptance or rejection of the teachers chosen by them. These powers were vested in the Lieutenant-Governor. The Act did not purpose any other centralized direction, control, or supervision of education, nor was any curricular prescription or guidance meditated. The Act of 1807 remained in force, with but few emendations, until 1853.

The legislative provision of 1807 effected no immediate changes in the curriculum of any of the existing secondary schools that were converted into district grammar schools, nor any departure from the prevailing practices in the new schools created under the authority of the Act. The curricula continued to be as varied as were the tastes of the individual masters.

Not only was there no uniformity in the subjects of instruction, but there was diversity even in the character of the schools. Some of the grammar schools gave courses of study differing but little from those of the government aided common (elementary) schools that sprang up a few years later. Both types of schools received young pupils and both taught elementary subjects. The grammar schools, of course, retained their

¹The schools were originally named "Public Schools" after the great English Public Schools of which they were intended to be replicas. The term "grammar schools" was not officially applied to them before 1839. In practice, however, they had been styled "grammar schools" almost from their inception.

pupils longer and introduced them into the higher branches. But the common schools, too, sometimes taught Latin and higher mathematics to their more gifted scholars. What distinguished the two classes of schools, then, was not entirely either the ages of the pupils or the subjects of instruction, though these constituted the most important bases of differentiation. The distinction was, in a large measure, a social one. The grammar schools, charging relatively high fees to supplement the meagre government grant, were designed for the children of the wealthy, the elementary schools for the mass of the population.

Nine years elapsed between the passing of the Public (Grammar) School Act (1807) and the Common School Act (1816). The first had made provision chiefly for the education of the select, the latter was designed for the people in general. The Act of 1816 marked the culmination of a long and acrimonious popular struggle against the exclusive and undemocratic nature of the grammar schools.

The Common School Act of 1816 was passed as a compromise measure between the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly. It was designed to remedy the shortcomings of the Grammar School Act by making provision for the establishment of elementary schools in "any town, township, village or place." The Act was passed on April 1, 1816.

Four months later an inquiry was made by the office of the Lieutenant-Governor into the state of the grammar schools. This was perhaps an echo of the educational imbroglio of that year. The immediate cause of the inquiry is not clear, since no allusion is made to it in the proceedings of the House of Assembly and no records have been preserved of the proceedings of the Legislative

Council for the year 1816.¹ From unpublished returns in the Public Archives of Canada² it appears that a circular was sent out from the office of the Lieutenant-Governor on August 19, 1816, addressed to the trustees of the grammar schools and asking for detailed information on the state of the schools under their supervision, the number of pupils, the branches taught, and the text-books used. The provisions of the Grammar School Act, it will be recalled, did not require reports from the trustees. This inquiry was then probably the result of the widely prevalent popular dissatisfaction with the schools.

The answers to the circular justified, in a great measure, this dissatisfaction, since they revealed the sad state into which many of these schools had sunk. Replies were received from seven of the eight grammar schools. Two of these schools, those of the Eastern district (in Cornwall) and the district of New Castle (in the Township of Hamilton), the reports show were closed that year; the grammar school at Sandwich in the Western district was at a low ebb, and the school in the district of London had fewer than ten pupils, only one of whom was taking Latin.³ The low state of the schools is perhaps attributable, in some measure, to the effects of the recent war. In Sandwich, for example, the school building had been occupied by troops. The schools reporting favourably were those in the Johnstown, Midland, and Home districts, situated

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, p. 94, ft. note.

²"Educational Papers," folio I.

³The Chairman of the board of trustees in this school, an illiterate old man named William Hutchison, is very apologetic in his reply to the Lieutenant-Governor: "I must humbly confess I feele more guilty of neglect in this trust than any other that ever was committed to my cair tho I served his Majesty in divers situations near 50 years." He pleads "want of education and being now fast advancing in a second stage of childhood."

respectively in the township of Augusta,¹ in Kingston, and York.

The grammar school reports of 1816 are of special interest for the purpose of the present inquiry, inasmuch as they contain the first available positive reference to the teaching of French in English schools of Upper Canada. French is mentioned in the returns from the Home District Grammar School (at York) under the superintendence of Strachan and the Cornwall Grammar School under the Rev. W. D. Baldwyn B.A. prior to his resignation and the closing of the school on April 26. The reference to French is only a passing one in both reports.

It appears that no French was taught at the Cornwall Grammar School under the Reverend John Bethune who succeeded Dr. Strachan in 1812. The report says:

"The branches of education which, as we are informed, were taught by Mr. Bethune were the English and Latin languages, writing, arithmetic, geography and mathematics, and during Mr. Baldwyn's superintendence, the Latin, Greek, French and English languages, with writing and arithmetic, if required, as he himself reports."²

The report speaks disparagingly of Mr. Baldwyn's fitness as a teacher: "From what we have learnt we think it necessary to state that the hours of tuition of Mr. Baldwyn were extremely irregular and his general superintendence such as to diminish the respectability of the school and not to make it an object for the attendance of any scholars for the purpose of tuition."

The curriculum of the Home District Grammar School at York under Strachan in 1816 is set forth in consider-

¹The Johnstown District Grammar School was transferred to Brockville in 1819.

²"Educational Papers," No. 11, Public Archives of Canada.

able detail. The school then had an attendance of about 40.

"Branches of Education taught, English language, Latin language, arithmetic, bookkeeping, mathematics, pure and mixed, geography, natural history, civil history, religion.

"Taught when required:

"The Greek and French languages, and all such branches as usually enter into an academic education."¹

It is manifest from this report that the status of French in the Home District School, as probably also in Cornwall, was a subordinate one. It was "taught when required". It had not yet attained the rank of a legitimate school study. It was taught as an incidental subject for which probably an extra fee was charged. No French was taught in any of the other schools reporting. The inferior position of French in Strachan's school is further attested to by its omission from the public examinations held on August 7, 1816,² and August 11, 1819.³

French passed out of the curriculum of the Eastern District School (Cornwall) after the retirement of Baldwin and the subsequent reorganization of the school.⁴ There is no evidence that it was taught between 1816 and 1858.⁵ French probably continued to be taught at the Home District School in York until the withdrawal of Dr. Strachan in 1828. The few available reports after that date contain no mention of French. It was not

¹*Ibid.*, No. 14.

²*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, p. 108.

³Scadding, *Toronto of Old*, p. 157.

⁴"Educational Papers," No. 11.

⁵French was not embraced in the curriculum of the school, according to the reports of the trustees, in 1827, 1828, 1831, and 1838. (Those reports are to be found in the appendices to the journals of the House of Assembly of Upper Canada.) The annual reports of the superintendent of education show that French was not taught in Cornwall between 1854 and 1858. In 1858 there were 12 pupils studying this subject.

taught in 1827 and 1828¹ nor as late as 1849.² It was reintroduced sometime between 1849 and 1854. In the latter year the Toronto Grammar School (formerly the Home District School) had 24 pupils who were studying French."³

The first amendment to the Grammar School Act of 1807 was made in 1819. One of the provisions of the Grammar School Amendment Act of that year is of especial interest for the purpose of the present investigation, namely, that which required the trustees of each district to hold an annual public examination and to submit to the Lieutenant-Governor annually, after the public examination, a report on "the state of the said schools, the number of scholars, the state of education, with the different branches taught." From the reports to the Lieutenant-Governor that have been preserved information can be gleaned about the curricula of the schools. Many of the reports extant throw light on the status of French in the grammar schools of Upper Canada prior to the middle of the century.⁴ The new Act wrought

¹Appendices to the journals of the House of Assembly of Upper Canada for 1828 and 1829.

²Original Report in "Sundries" No. 581, in the Public Archives of Canada.

³Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education, 1854, p. 46.

⁴These reports were not always published in the proceedings of the House; none were published for the early twenties. A number of the original returns are to be found in the Public Archives in Ottawa. A collection of miscellaneous documents, grouped together under the title of "Educational Papers" and consisting almost exclusively of petitions, reports, etc., addressed to the Lieutenant-Governor, contains, in addition to those already quoted, the following grammar school reports: 1823, reports from the Eastern and Gore district grammar schools; 1824, reports from the district schools of Kingston and Niagara; 1826, a report of the Niagara District School; 1828, reports of the Johnstown district school; 1830, Niagara, London, Midland, Newcastle, and Western district school reports; 1835, from the Gore, Western, and London districts; 1839 and 1841, from Upper Canada College. In addition to these the "Educational Papers" contain also numerous reports on district common schools. Another collection of original documents in the archives, entitled "Upper Canada

no changes in the studies of the grammar schools. The best schools continued to adhere to the classical traditions, the worst, as before, differed but little from the common schools of the day and taught, for the most part, the elementary school subjects.

Nor did the creation of the General Board of Education in 1823 under the presidency of the Rev. John Strachan really effect any curricular reforms in the schools. The General Board of Education was intended to be a centralizing agency in education and had under its supervision both the district and common schools of Upper Canada. It was, however, short-lived, passing out of existence in 1833.

The available periodical returns from the grammar schools are incomplete and are entirely missing for some of the years.¹ The earliest reports extant, with the exception of the two reports of 1816 noted above, are negative as regards French. There was no French taught in the grammar schools of the Gore district (Hamilton) in 1823, in the Midland (Kingston) and Niagara districts in 1824, nor in the Niagara District Grammar School in 1826.²

The returns for the next year³ are more complete than usual. There are returns from all but four schools. In none of the schools reporting was French taught.⁴

Sundries" besides many reports on common schools, contains reports for the following years and the following district grammar schools: 1845, Gore, Ottawa, and Simcoe; 1846, Brock and Ottawa; 1847, reports on the grammar schools in Niagara and St. Catharines; 1848, reports on the grammar schools of Wellington, Bathurst, Ottawa, Dalhousie, Victoria, Gore, Prince Edward, Johnstown, Niagara, Huron, Home, Simcoe, Talbot, Western, Colborne and Newcastle. In addition to these original documents in the Public Archives there are numerous published reports in the appendices to the journals of the House of Assembly.

¹The writer has been able to find only four reports for the period of six years between the passing of the Grammar School Amendment Act (1819) and 1826.

²"Educational Papers," Public Archives of Canada.

³Appendix to the Journals of the House of Assembly of Upper Canada, 1828.

⁴The Western (Sandwich), Niagara, Home (York), Newcastle (Cobourg), Midland (Kingston), Eastern (Cornwall) and Ottawa (Longueil) district grammar schools.

During the first six months of 1828 there were only four grammar school pupils in Upper Canada learning French.¹ They were scholars of the Gore District Grammar School in Hamilton. French was taught in none of the other grammar schools of the province² that year. By the second half of the year the four French scholars had dwindled down to two¹, and the following year the study of French was discontinued entirely in the Gore District Grammar School. The Gore District School was one of the largest of the time, having an enrolment of 65. The discontinuance of French was probably incident to the removal of the female scholars from the school. "The most material alteration in the condition of the school during the last six months", the headmaster reports,¹ "consists in the absence of female scholars, arising from the inconvenience of my present school room, and the establishment of a female school in the village."³ It is possible that the French instruction interrupted in the grammar school was resumed in the "female school in the village". The knowledge of French was often regarded as an accomplishment especially befitting women.

As president of the General Board of Education Strachan had made a fruitless attempt, in 1829, to introduce greater uniformity into the curricula of the grammar schools. With that end in view, and also for the guidance

¹See reports from the individual schools in the Appendix to the Journals for 1829.

²The reports for the year are complete for all the schools except that of the Bathurst district in Perth, from which no report was received. There is only one report available from that school before 1849. That report is negative as regards French. It is reasonable to assume that the Perth school, like the other nine grammar schools, taught no French that year.

³In his report to Lieutenant-Governor Colborne in 1828 Dr. Strachan expressed dissatisfaction with the practice of admitting girls in some of the grammar schools, "as the admission of female children interfered with the government which is required in classical seminaries."

of inexperienced teachers, he had drawn up a proposed course of study (see p. 36 ante), whose adoption, it was claimed, "would be highly beneficial, and produce a higher standard of education through the province."¹ It was a comprehensive course, and comprised also the study of French, from the second school year on. The proposed course was never officially carried into effect and the adoption of the recommendations regarding the studies was entirely voluntary.

Of the early grammar schools only one school is definitely known to have given instruction in French uninterruptedly for three years, *viz.*, the Newcastle District Grammar School in Cobourg from 1829 to 1831. In another school, that of the Midland District, in Kingston, French was taught for two consecutive years, in 1830 and 1831. It is probable that there were other grammar schools also which retained that study in their curricula for two years or more, but we lack data concerning these schools. In the majority of grammar schools, however, in which French was taught at all, it was taught only intermittently.

The Newcastle District Grammar School had four pupils in French in 1829,² six pupils the following year,³ but only one in 1831.⁴ The teaching of French was begun in the Kingston school a year after its introduction into the curriculum of the Cobourg School. There were in the former school in 1830 and in 1831 five and four French scholars respectively.⁵

¹From Strachan's report to the Lieutenant-Governor. See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, pp. 265f.

²Appendix to the Journals, 1830, p. 199.

³"Educational Papers," No. 290, Public Archives of Canada.

⁴Appendix to Journals, 1832-3, p. 212.

⁵Appendix to Journals, 1831, p. 163. Reporting in 1832 the trustees give the number of French scholars for the preceding year as six. See Appendix to the Journals, 1832-3, p. 212.

Why was French dropped out of the curricula of these two schools? We are furnished with an explanation in the case of the Kingston School—the burden of the extra fees of the French master. Were the trustees of the grammar school in Cobourg confronted with the same difficulty? Or was it general indifference to this new study? In Kingston, at any rate, we are assured, the difficulty was purely a financial one. The trustees were dubious from the first about the feasibility of maintaining a French teacher in the school. In their report in 1831 they express doubt “whether there will be sufficient encouragement held out for him to remain.” The next year they report that:

“ . . . from want of general encouragement to the French master, though very deserving of support, and the absence of any public means of remunerating him, the trustees regret to say, that his services could not be retained.

The very large fees willingly paid by the parents of the boys whom he attended show that there is a desire for this branch of knowledge, and that it would be generally cultivated, if by means of some public provision made towards the support of a competent teacher, it could be obtained at a moderate cost to the pupil.”¹

The “desire for this branch of knowledge” was probably more pronounced in Kingston, owing to its proximity to the lower province than in most of the other schools in Upper Canada. Undoubtedly the lack of regular teachers capable of teaching French was also a serious impediment to the introduction of this study into the grammar schools. The expedient of employing natives as part-time teachers of French was an awkward and expensive arrangement, particularly for small schools.

The returns from the Newcastle and Midland district

¹Appendix to the Journals of the House of Assembly of Upper Canada for 1832-33, p. 212.

grammar schools derive additional interest from the light they throw on the content of the French courses in these schools. They supply us, for the first time, with specific data respecting the text-books used. The curriculum of the Cobourg school in 1829 with the number of pupils in the various subjects is here reproduced in its original form.¹

TABLE 1.—TEXT-BOOKS AND THE NUMBER OF PUPILS IN EACH SUBJECT IN THE NEWCASTLE DISTRICT GRAMMAR SCHOOL, 1829

Latin	Greek	French	Mathematics	History and Geography	English Grammar and Arithmetic	Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic	Bookkeeping	BOOKS IN USE
4		3	4	4				Cicero, Horace, Virgil and Sallust, Mair's Exercises.
								Greek Grammar, Graecae Minora and Homer's Iliad.
								French Grammar, Fables and Telemachus.
								Euclid, Bonycastle's Algebra, and Hutton's Mathematics.
				9				Roman and English History—Goldsmith's Geography.
8					12			L. Rudiments, Lectiones, Selecta, Howard's Exercises.
						12		Murray's English Grammar—Walkingame's Arithmetic.
								Mavor's Spelling Book—Murray's English Reader.
							6	Morrison's Elements of Bookkeeping.

The 1830 report specifies the French textbooks more minutely. They were "Wanostrocht, French Grammar; Perrin's Fables and Telemachus."²

The returns of the Midland District School are specific

¹Appendix to the Journals for 1830, p. 199.

²Educational Papers, No. 290, Public Archives of Canada.

only as regards the French authors read and say nothing about French grammar. Giving an account of the annual examination of the ten classes of the school in 1830 "in presence of the trustees and the inhabitants of the town of Kingston", the report, after enumerating the number of pupils and the subjects of examination of the first three classes, says: "The fourth class, composed of five pupils, was exercised in Telemachus and the French Testament."¹

In 1835 five of the grammar schools whose returns are available reported negatively for French.² About the rest information is lacking. Three years later at least eleven of the twelve schools in operation had no French³ and, from various considerations, it is safe to say that the twelfth likewise had none.⁴

In 1839 there were thirteen grammar schools in Upper Canada. Only two of these are definitely known to have had courses in French that year, eight of them taught no French, and there are no reports available for the remaining three.⁵ The three schools from which returns are lacking were the grammar schools of the Western, London, and Midland districts. The first two, as far as can be ascertained, had never had French in their programmes and the last had discontinued the subject in 1832. It is reasonably certain, then, that in 1839 only two of the grammar schools taught French. These were the Johnstown Grammar School (in Brockville) and the

¹Educational Papers, No. 288.

²Educational Papers, Nos. 491 and 492, and appendix to the Journals for 1836, No. 39.

³Appendix to the Journals.

⁴There are no returns for the Prince Edward District School (Picton) for 1838. This school taught no French in 1839 nor as late as 1849. See Appendix to the Journals for 1839-40, p. 413 and "Sundries," No. 446.

⁵Appendix to the Journals for 1839-40, pp. 401ff.

Newcastle Grammar School (in Cobourg).¹ In the former French was taught in the first (highest) class, consisting of eight pupils. The programme, in addition to French, comprised also Greek, Latin, mathematics, natural philosophy, history, geography, composition, and arithmetic. In the latter school instruction in French was given to a class which was also learning bookkeeping.

The history of the grammar schools was an uneventful one during the first half of the century. For fifty years they were but little molested by legislative enactments. The Act that brought them into existence in 1807 remained substantially unaltered throughout the period. We have already noted the provisions of the Act of 1819 which required the trustees to hold annual public examinations of their schools and report the results to the Lieutenant-Governor, and we have noted also the functions of the General Board of Education between 1823 and 1833. The internal life of the schools was, however, but little affected by these changes.

In 1839 the functions that had been exercised by the General Board were, with somewhat enlarged powers, transferred to the Council of King's College. (King's College was the original name of the University of Toronto.) The Council was authorized to prescribe "rules, regulations, and bye-laws for the conduct and good government"² of the schools. This the Council did, and in 1841 it issued along with a set of regulations a detailed course of study for the grammar schools. The course was designed to follow that of Upper Canada College.³ Each school was to be composed of six forms (besides a preparatory form) and "partial forms" for

¹*Ibid.*, pp. 408 and 411.

²See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. III, p. 171.

³See Chapter IV.

those not taking Latin or Greek. The prescription for each form was set forth minutely. The range of subjects was wide. It included, besides the classics and higher mathematics, arithmetic, English, history, geography, use of the globes, bookkeeping, elocution, and the Bible; and for the partial form, in addition to the above subjects—but omitting the classics—also the “elements of natural philosophy”.

French was not included in the courses prescribed. The omission of French is the more surprising as Archdeacon Strachan, who had always favoured the study of French in the secondary schools, was the president of the Council. Why did Strachan consent to have French omitted from the grammar school programme? He had sponsored it in programmes he had drawn up before. The explanation is not hard to find. Strachan and his Council were bent on prescribing a curriculum that was workable for the whole province and the lack of teachers of French made it impracticable to prescribe that study. To prescribe it would have only tended to diminish respect for the curriculum as a whole.

It is hard to say what effect the absence of French on the programme had in discouraging this subject in the grammar schools, since the programme was really never enforced. In response to a widespread dissatisfaction with the denominational complexion of the Council that body was deprived of the power of making regulations for the grammar schools in the same year in which it issued its first curriculum and first set of rules for the government of these schools, in 1841.

For want of data the fortunes of French as a grammar school study in Upper Canada cannot be followed in detail for the next decade. The few accessible reports prior to 1848 are, with three exceptions, negative as

regards French. There was no French in the curricula of the grammar schools of the Ottawa District (Longueil) in 1845, 1846, and 1847,¹ the Colborne District (Peterboro) from 1845 to 1848,² and the Simcoe District (Barrie) in 1845.³

The three known exceptions to the negative reports on French before 1848—presumably there were more exceptions about which we possess no data—do not attest any ardour for the study of French in the grammar schools of Upper Canada in the fourth decade of the century. The story is soon told. There was a lone French scholar (a boy named David Williamson) in the Gore District Grammar School in Hamilton in 1845 pursuing a course in Lévizac's *French Grammar* and Voltaire's *Charles XII*.⁴ Another boy in a grammar school fifty miles west of Hamilton, in Woodstock, was just as solitary as he in the French class, the next year; the Brock district Grammar School, situated in Woodstock, had in 1846 but one pupil studying French.⁵ The third grammar school known to have had French in its programme in the forties was the St. Catharines Grammar School.⁶ In 1847 that school had a French class of unstated numbers.

Ryerson's unofficial statistical tabulations of the studies pursued in the private and grammar schools of the province in 1847, 1848, and 1849⁷ are not very helpful in forming an estimate of the extent to which French was

¹S., No. 12,234, Public Archives of Canada. The letter S on these documents in the Archives is used to designate a collection of documents grouped together under the general heading of "Sundries".

²S., No. 938.

³S., No. 11,434.

⁴S., No. 12,386.

⁵S., No. 12,457.

⁶*Ibid.*

⁷See Annual Reports of the Superintendent of Education for these years.

studied in the grammar schools. In the first place, the information about the subjects of study is not given separately for the grammar schools but jointly with the private schools, and consequently we have no means of telling whether the information furnished applies to the one or the other class of schools or to both. Secondly, the returns from these schools were voluntary and unofficial, since the superintendent of education had no jurisdiction over them, and hence are apt to be inaccurate. Lastly, there is no individual tabulation of the several studies; all the subjects are divided into three (1847) or four (1848) groups headed "higher branches", "classics", "English branches", and "French, music, drawing, etc." It follows that we cannot tell, from the data supplied by the statistical tables, which of the schools reporting "classics", for example, taught only Latin and which taught both Latin and Greek, or whether schools reporting "French, music, drawing, etc.," taught French at all. There was no separate heading provided in the printed form for that subject. Hence we are likely to find schools where no French was taught filling in the blank under either "French, etc.," (1847) or "French, music, drawing, etc." (1848), to indicate that some pupils were taking subjects not elsewhere listed. The information thus is indefinite and misleading, and the conclusions of the Superintendent, it is to be feared, are erroneous when he says in his summary that "French, drawing, and music" were taught in 53 grammar and private schools in 1847.¹

There were reported to be in operation that year 38 grammar schools and academies² and 96 private schools. The number of these schools teaching "French, music,

¹Annual Report for 1847, p. 17.

²See footnote on pages 78 and 79.

and drawing" is given for the next two years as 40 and 30 respectively. The sudden drop in these studies, as reported, is the more amazing when it is remembered that these schools had increased from 134 in 1847 to 196 in 1849. The statistical data thus represent an abrupt falling off, in the space of three years, in the number of schools teaching these subjects from 40% to 15% of the total. This is unthinkable, and we are compelled to dismiss as vague and misleading the statistical information furnished in reference to the study of French in the grammar and private schools in 1847 and 1848. Ryerson concedes the defective nature of the reports, and grants that "the returns under the heads of colleges and grammar schools are too vague to serve any practical purpose; the same may be said of the returns of private schools."¹

The writer was able to examine seventeen of the original grammar school returns for 1848.² They represent returns from more than half of the grammar schools in operation that year.³ All but three of the seventeen grammar schools report negatively in respect to French. The three schools in which French was taught were the grammar schools of the Ottawa (Longueuil), Bathurst (Perth), and Wellington (Guelph) districts. The returns furnish us with no details about the French courses in these schools.

¹Annual Report for 1849, p. 10.

²Public Archives of Canada. S., Nos. 402, 403, 417, 446, 457, 470, 490, 491, 505, 556, 574, 581, 649, 740, 827, 938, and 988.

These returns were made in response to a circular asking for information covering the period of January 1845 to December 1848. It seems, however, that the information supplied, except in the case of one school, applies only to the year just passed, 1848.

³The exact number of these grammar schools is not always easy to determine. In the reports of the Superintendent the grammar schools and academies are tabulated together until 1851. The appendices to the journals make it clear that there were twenty grammar schools in 1842 and twenty-four in 1844.

The relatively complete returns for 1848 make up, in a large measure, for the incomplete reports of the seven preceding years and give us a fairly good idea of the status of French in the grammar school programme of the time. Unless conditions at the schools from which returns are lacking were strikingly different from the others, we are safe in assuming that the study of French in the grammar schools was still comparatively uncommon in 1848. And there is no ground for supposing that the seventeen schools in question are not representative of all the schools; they are geographically well distributed and comprise both the older and newer schools. The conclusion then would seem to be warranted that only from 15 to 20% of the schools had French in their curricula.

There were two chief reasons for the tardy spread of French as a subject of study in the grammar schools of Upper Canada during the first half of the nineteenth century. On the one hand, the classical tradition was still firmly entrenched, and on the other hand, there was, as we have seen, a scarcity of teachers equipped to teach the French tongue. Proficiency in the classics was widely accepted as a true criterion of education, and hence the emphasis was placed on Sallust and Virgil, Cornelius Nepos and Horace. The school period was too short to be diffused over too many subjects. The newer studies were looked at askance by many persons. Neither natural philosophy nor French was as yet generally conceded an undisputed place in the secondary school curriculum. But even where a desire was manifested to learn French there were not always opportunities for its study, since but few of the regular grammar school masters were competent to teach it. The best grammar schools of Upper Canada were staffed mainly by masters who had been trained in the universities of the mother-

land. In them the study of modern languages had not taken firm root. The Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in Great Britain state that "until about 1860 the universities of England offered little opportunity or encouragement for the study of modern foreign languages,"¹ and that in Scotland, although French was taught in many grammar schools, it suffered "from the lack of university recognition." This condition continued in Scotland "until the door of the universities was partly opened to living foreign languages by the Commission of 1889."² The graduates of these universities who settled in Canada to follow the vocation of teaching, often in conjunction with the ministry, were not often qualified to teach French. Their forte were the traditional studies. Besides these teachers there were others who mastered neither the older nor the newer studies—those incompetents³ that the educational investigations of the period so often cry out against.

Nor did the courses at any of the three universities of Upper Canada equip those who were graduated from them to teach French. Victoria College had no professor of modern languages before 1850,⁴ although the study of French had been contemplated from the inception of the institution,⁵ the University of Toronto had no modern language department until the advent of Professor James

¹*Modern Studies*, p. 3.

²*Ibid.*, p. 14.

³There is not a trace of cynicism in the memorial to the legislature of the Gore District Council of 1847 in which they frankly declare their intention to continue providing common school teachers "by securing, as heretofore, the services of those whose physical disabilities, from age, render this mode of obtaining a livelihood the only one suited to their decaying energies, or by employing such of the newly arrived emigrants . . . who will adopt this as a means of temporary support." See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. VII, p. 115.

⁴*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. X, p. 84.

⁵*Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 117 and pp. 218f., and Vol. V, pp. 91f.

Forneri in 1853.¹ (Prior to this there had been some instruction given in German by Jacob Hirschfelder, who acted as tutor in Hebrew and German,)² No French was taught at Queen's College. Thus there was no stimulus given to the study of French by the universities of Upper Canada during the first decade of their existence. French was neither a prerequisite of admission nor did it form part of their curricula until after the middle of the century.

During the first half of the century French had not yet attained the position of a standard grammar school subject. The classical monopoly held sway in the schools. The best schools persisted in following the model of the English Public Schools and their traditional curriculum.

Indications were nevertheless discernible of an interest in the subject, especially after the first third of the century. Enough has been said of Strachan's attitude towards the study of French. Egerton Ryerson recognized its worth as a school study early in his educational career. (See p. 83.) Dr. Duncombe, in his report on education in Upper Canada in 1836, cried out against the prevailing tyranny of the classics and contended that "Modern Literature . . . should be counted the great field of literary enterprise and study."³ The Parliamentary Commission on Education in 1839 recommended French for the grammar school curriculum, though only as an optional subject.⁴ William Craigie, secretary of the Ancaster Literary Institution, and a man whose views

¹In this year the University was made solely an examining body, the work of instruction being delegated to a new college, known as University College.

²*Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 128 and p. 131. Hirschfelder obtained his appointment only after making repeated applications to the Council of King's College.

³*Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 295.

⁴*Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 262.

on education were prized highly likewise favoured the study of French in the district schools.¹

This interest in French found expression, as will be seen later, in the not uncommon study of the language in the academies of the period. It was manifested also, as we have seen, in intermittent attempts by isolated grammar schools to introduce the subject into their programmes. The attempts were sporadic. French teachers were not easy to secure, and the added financial obligation was not negligible. The schools were hampered both by a lack of funds and the want of a uniform prescription of work. Both these defects Ryerson strove to remedy in the memorable Act of 1853, of which an account will be given in a subsequent chapter. Before resuming the thread of our story, however, we must review the early history of the teaching of French in a school that exerted an unequalled influence on the course of secondary education during the period under review and subsequently, namely, Upper Canada College. This will be the burden of the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FRENCH IN THE EARLY DAYS OF UPPER CANADA COLLEGE

Of the earliest founded secondary schools in Ontario that are still in existence Upper Canada College is the only one that has taught French without interruption from the date of its establishment to the present time; it was the first school to engage a permanent native French teacher; as well as the first one to employ a full-time master devoting himself exclusively to the teaching of French. The example of this institution

¹*Ibid.*, p. 270.

indubitably had much to do with eventually raising French to the position of a standard grammar school study, for it must be remembered that Upper Canada College occupied a unique position; it served as the model that the grammar schools, whether consciously or unconsciously, endeavoured to imitate. Hence its influence on the curriculum of the grammar schools in the province was far reaching.

Upper Canada College was founded at a time when a sharp contest was in progress between those who were pressing the claims of a provincial university for the education of the select few and those who were championing the cause of the elementary schools for the mass of the people. The contending parties were the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The establishment of Upper Canada College was of the nature of a compromise between the two opposing claims. It was realized that the province was not ripe for a college of university rank and that present needs could be adequately satisfied by a "minor" college, which would pave the way for a seminary of higher learning by preparing students for it. The founding in 1829 of Upper Canada College or "Minor College", as it was also called, was the result. It was, in effect, a superior grammar school. Its immediate founder was Sir John Colborne, who became the Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada in 1829.

In accordance with the original scheme of the founder of the institution, French was to be an integral component of the curriculum, though avowedly of a lower order than the time-honoured studies, Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Writing in 1829 to the vice-chancellor of the University of Oxford to ask for his assistance in securing a principal and masters for the proposed in-

stitution, Sir John Colborne informs him that the staff "will consist of four classical masters, a mathematical master, two French masters",¹ and so on. It is manifest that the French department was not intended to be on a parity with the classical and mathematical departments. On the latter, in the main, would depend the success of the entire venture. Hence the classical and mathematical masters must be selected without delay as well as with the greatest circumspection. The principal "must have taken a first class degree in classics and mathematics."² The classical bias is pronounced. Upper Canada College was intended by its founder to follow, in the main, the classical traditions of its prototypes, the Public Schools of England. In introducing French as part of the regular curriculum the college was, however, in advance of most of these schools, for French was taught, at the time, in but few of the great English Public Schools.

From an announcement appearing in the *Upper Canada Gazette* of December 17, 1829,³ just prior to the opening of the school, we learn that the first French master was "Mr. J. P. de la Haye, for some time employed at the College of Louis le Grand, at Paris and at Vincennes, a native of France, and an experienced instructor."⁴

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, page 286. The original project was later modified and only two classical masters and one French master were engaged.

²*Ibid.*, p. 287.

³Quoted by Hodgins, *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, p. 290.

⁴The following biographical note appeared at the time of his death in the *Journal of Education* of December, 1872, Vol. XXV, No. 12:

"The late Mr. De la Haye was well known to many in years gone by. His name has been a household word in the families of men who, when boys, attended Upper Canada College. A brief record, therefore, of his past life will no doubt be read with interest:—A native of France, he was born in Bretagne, May, 1799, and was, therefore, when he died, in the 74th year of his age. He took his degree at the College of St. Malo, after which he resided for several years in England, as a teacher of French. When Lieutenant-Governor, Sir John Colborne (afterwards Lord Seaton) founded a college in Toronto, for the higher education of the youth of the country, Mr. De la Haye was appointed French master. Monsieur

The following table giving the amount of time and the number of periods per week allotted to the several subjects of study at Upper Canada College shows, in a measure, the place accorded to French in relation to the other studies. The tabulation is reproduced from an original document¹ prepared by Dr. Harris, principal of the College, and submitted to the Lieutenant-Governor. The document is not dated but from the fact that it is found among other papers of 1831 and from considerations of internal evidence² it is quite obvious that it belongs to that year, the second year after the opening of the college. It sets forth in tabular form the "Plan of Studies" of the institution.

and Madame De la Haye (to whom he was married before venturing to seek a new home across the ocean) arrived here (then 'little York') in the fall of 1829, and in January, 1830, Upper Canada College was inaugurated, Dr. J. H. Harris being Principal. In 1844 M. De la Haye revisited France, and passed a few happy months among the friends of his youth and the scenes of his boyhood, and up to 1856 he continued to fill the position which he had thus occupied for more than a quarter of a century. Having served the college so long and so faithfully, the authorities recognized his merits by granting him a pension; and, always attached to a country life and rural pursuits, he then settled on the large and attractive property, in the Gore of Toronto, which he had acquired many years previously, in view of the cherished wish and hope to spend the rest of his days, in peace and quiet, 'on his own ground'. In 1859 the beloved partner of his life, who had done so much to make his home happy and his condition prosperous, was taken away; and, though he felt this great loss, his country habits, his fields and his crops, continued to be a pleasure and a comfort until prostrated by the malady which has proved mortal, it became necessary to remove him into town. In the class-room Mr. De la Haye was popular with all; of the many hundred College boys who passed through the French department in his time, we feel sure that no one retains in after days other than a feeling of, it may be said, filial regard toward him; while those who lived under his roof, and shared the domestic fireside, will always remember Madame De la Haye's kindly care and attention with the greatest affection; and in proof of Monsieur De la Haye's place in their esteem, a handsome and valuable testimonial was presented to him, soon after leaving the college, by his old pupils."

¹"Educational Papers", No. 349, Public Archives of Canada.

²See the principal's report to the General Board of Education, quoted in Dickson and Mercer's *History of Upper Canada College*, pp. 55f.

TABLE 2.—PLAN OF STUDIES OF UPPER CANADA COLLEGE, 1831

"General View of the Occupation of each Form, through One Week.

Attendance of	In Classics		In Mathematics		In French		In Writing, Arith., etc.	
	Times	Hours	Times	Hours	Times	Hours	Times	Hours
6th Form	10	16½	5	8½	2	3		
5th Form	11	17	3	5	3	6		
4th Form	9	15½	3	5	3	4½	2	3
3rd Form	10	17			3	5	4	6
2nd Form	12	18			1	2	4	8
1st Form	11	19					5	7½

making a total of 28 hours per week for every form, except the first."

It is seen that French was begun in the second form, with one lesson a week of two hours' duration. In the third form French was taught three times a week and was allotted a total of five hours. In the fourth form, four and a half hours were given to French, divided into three lessons. In the fifth and sixth forms French received six and three hours, three times and twice a week respectively.

A comparison between the "times" and "hours" given to classics and French respectively shows the overwhelming preponderance of Greek and Latin in the programme. The tabulated analysis, moreover, tells only part of the story. Not only was more school time to be given to the classics than to all other studies combined but almost all of this time was to be "spent in actual rehearsal with the master" and could not be used by the students for the preparation of their lessons. "It is intended that no classical lessons (except once or at the utmost twice in the course of the week . . .) shall be prepared in the school hours." This time had to be spent in recitation. Lessons in the non-classical subjects, on the other hand, had to be prepared in class. "None of

the masters, except the classical, are to require lessons to be prepared out of school hours."¹

The classical predominance appeared not only in the greater share of time allotted to the traditional studies, but also in the higher prestige enjoyed by the classical masters as compared with the teachers of what were regarded as less significant subjects, such as French and art. The lower status of the French and art masters is strangely exemplified in the denial of seats on the platform of the assembly room to M. de la Haye and Mr. Drewry, the teachers of French and drawing. This discrimination was resented by them, and in the following memorial, dated January 31, 1831, they appealed to the Lieutenant-Governor for the removal of the disability:

We, J. de la Haye and Thos. Drewry, humbly beg your Excellency to take into consideration our case, of which the annexed is a statement:

The public room at the U.C. College, having been fitted up for the purpose of public meetings and examinations of the pupils, seats adjoining those of the Principal and Vice-Principal have been erected for the three² first classical masters, excluding us from that privilege. We therefore respectfully submit to your Excellency whether it be your Excellency's pleasure or not, that we should (as masters attached to the establishment) be entitled to have seats exactly similar to those of the other classical masters (equally under the control of the Principal as ourselves) with that distinction only of their taking the precedence. Hoping you will examine into the merits of our request, we respectfully await your Excellency's decision.³

¹*Op. cit.*

²Since there were only *two* classical masters on the staff, it is evident that the classical masters and the mathematical master are meant.

³S., No. 314, Public Archives of Canada.

In the proceedings of King's College Council of September 30, 1844, the following minute occurs: "Moved by Doctor McCaul, seconded by Doctor Beaven, that the First Classical master in Upper Canada College shall have and hold precedence and rank next after the Principal. Carried."

There were others, too, that were disgruntled with the classical overlordship at Upper Canada College. Six months after the date of the memorial just quoted another memorial was presented to Sir John Colborne. It was submitted by Robert Baldwin and a number of other prominent men in York, who complained of the too rigidly classical programme of the students and prayed for a course "in such branches of an English education, as will qualify them for discharging . . . the scientific and other business of tradesmen and mechanics."¹ In his reply the Lieutenant-Governor defended the course as constituting a suitable preparation for the professions and as being calculated to make the graduate of the college "a classical scholar, a good mathematician, with a critical knowledge of two modern languages (manifestly referring to English and French), while at the same time he will find that his commercial education has not been neglected." There is, nevertheless, a hint about certain contemplated "partial changes in the college course . . . with reference to pupils intended for a scientific or commercial employment."² This foreshadowed the non-classical "partial form" that was inaugurated a few years later, for students intending to engage in commercial or scientific pursuits.

The concentrated classical diet of the college bill of fare was not the only thing that called forth criticism. There were those who doubted the propriety of employing full time teachers of French and art with fixed salaries. Were not these subjects only polite accomplishments, and should not the teachers, in consequence, be made dependent for their remuneration on the pupils taking these extra subjects?

¹*Doc. Hist.* Vol. II, p. 29.

²*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. II, p. 30.

In the thirties a series of reports on education was made by a Select Committee of the House of Assembly. The appendix to the second of these reports, presented in 1832, and consisting of an account of the examination of a number of prominent persons about the state of Upper Canada College, throws some light on the attitude of the committee towards what was regarded as the anomalous practice of making French and art integral parts of the school course, rather than extra subjects for those who desired them. The legitimacy of French and drawing as regular parts of the curriculum is apparently called in question. It was not customary in schools of the type of Upper Canada College to pay salaries to teachers of these subjects irrespective of the number of scholars taught by them. In the great English Public Schools, it appears, if such teachers were employed, they were remunerated chiefly by the pupils whom they taught. But Upper Canada College had a full-time French master who did not receive his fees directly from his pupils. This was a radical departure from the prevailing practice and was apparently frowned on by the committee. In the examination of the Hon. John Beverley Robinson, Chief Justice of Upper Canada, and a member of the General Board of Education, as well as of the Executive and Legislative Councils of the province, the following question was asked:

"Is it usual to place French and drawing masters on the foundation of large schools and allow them salaries without any regard to the number of their pupils?"

His reply was as follows:

"I believe it is not the usual course; but I am not particularly informed on this point. It was thought that instruction in French and in the rudiments of drawing would be a very important addition to the ordinary course of education, and that, if these could be made parts of the general system

of instruction and be taught to all, without exception, a great general good would be attained. Whereas, if they were made to entail an additional charge for tuition, some parents might be unable to avail themselves of the advantage, and others who were able might, from a too rigid economy, dispense with it. For the sake of the youth of the province, therefore, these branches were placed upon the footing on which they now are. I doubt whether it has answered well, and I am sensible that the plan is subject to objections, but I thought it expedient at the time, and fully concurred in it."¹

That the Committee considered instruction in French as an unwarranted advantage given to the pupils of Upper Canada College over the pupils in the grammar schools is evident from the next question: "Are the inhabitants of York less able to pay for the instruction of their children in these branches (French and drawing) than the people of the other districts?"²

Dr. Strachan, in testifying, said:

According to my experience and information, French and drawing masters are attached to seminaries, but not placed with salaries on the foundation. They are paid only by those who employ them. To this general practice there may be exceptions, but I consider it the most judicious, and it seems to work well.³

The employment of a French master was defended in the testimony of the registrar of King's College on the ground that this inducement was necessary to attract "persons duly qualified to come to this province and take the positions."⁴

From returns furnished by the principal of the college

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. II, p. 85.

²*Ibid.*

³*Ibid.*, p. 88.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 90.

The salary of M. de la Haye, at the time of the inquiry, was £200 sterling per annum, that of the classical and mathematical masters, £300 sterling each. *Ibid.*, p. 93.

to the Lieutenant-Governor in 1835¹ we gather that there was no French in the curriculum of the Preparatory School that had been added to the institution. The returns also show that for the benefit of those desiring a practical rather than a classical education there had been a modification in the course which permitted the classical studies to be dropped after the third form. The pupils not pursuing the classics constituted the "partial class".² This "partial class" received instruction in French.³ In the regular course French was taught, as before, in all the forms except the first.

For many years after its foundation Upper Canada College was constantly under scrutiny and was frequently hard pressed by its critics. The attacks were provoked chiefly by its preponderantly classical curriculum and because of the alleged restriction of its advantages to the inhabitants of York. Much of the antagonism to the institution was, no doubt, also traceable to a feeling of jealousy of the benefits bestowed upon it that were not granted to the other secondary schools in the province.

The repeated broadsides directed against the college called forth, in 1836, an elaborate and spirited defence of the institution by its principal, the Rev. Dr. Harris. Combating the charges of undue prominence given to the classics, he points out that continued modifications in the course have retrenched "the time devoted to the classics, till, at present, this latter branch occupies less than half of the time spent at the college by pupils of any standing."⁴ The course of instruction, he contends, "is very far from being merely classical", since it comprises "besides the classics, progressive instruction in writing,

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. II, pp. 171ff.

²*Ibid.*, p. 173.

³*Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 319.

⁴Quoted by Hodgins, *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. III, pp. 315ff.

arithmetic, bookkeeping, geography, history, English composition, French, mathematics, principles of land surveying, and the elements of natural philosophy." He adds, furthermore, that students are at liberty to omit the classics entirely after the third form and take only the non-classical studies of the "partial class". The curriculum for 1836 is outlined, which shows that French, as before, is taught in all the seven forms except the lowest (and the preparatory school) and that it is also taught in the "partial class".

No record is available of the French text-books used in Upper Canada College between 1830 and 1838. We have, however, a complete list of the French books that were in use in the latter year. Most of these had probably also been used before then. A list of these books¹ is given in the appendix to the report of a Commission on Education in Upper Canada appointed in 1839 and is reproduced in table 3. As in previous years, French is taught in all the forms except the first form and the preparatory school.

TABLE 3.—FRENCH BOOKS USED IN UPPER CANADA COLLEGE IN 1838

Second Form: Lévizac's *French Grammar*; Wanostrocht's (*French Grammar*).
 Third Form: Perrin's *French Dialogues*; *Telemachus* (*Télémaque*).
 Partial Class: French books—the same as those used in the forms.
 Fourth Form: *Traité de la Conjugaison Française*; Beauté's *Histoire de France* (sic).
 Fifth Form: *Traité des Participes*; *Histoire de Louis XIV and XV*.
 Sixth Form: (The French Books are not given).
 Seventh Form: *Henriade*; Selections from Boileau.

Such was the French programme of the College in 1838. Upper Canada College was, as regards French, a sort of oasis in the desert of the Frenchless grammar schools of that year.² French continued to be taught at the college without a break; it was never dropped from the curriculum.

¹Quoted by Hodgins, *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. III, p. 258. See also appendix to the Journals for 1839-40, Vol. II, pp. 338ff.

²See page 54, *ante*.

Before returning to our discussion of the study of French in the government-aided secondary schools of Ontario a few words must be said about that study, prior to the middle of the century, in the other educational institutions: the colleges, the academies, the private schools, and the common schools.

Only two colleges of secondary school rank were founded during the first half of the century. The first of these, Upper Canada College, has already been dealt with. The other, Upper Canada Academy (afterwards Victoria College), was opened in Cobourg in 1836. In the schedule of fees for tuition in the various branches, adopted before the opening of the school, the following item occurs: "French and other modern languages, per term . . . £1 10s. 0d." ¹ The following year it was reported to the House of Assembly regarding this school that "In the Female Department, which is perfectly distinct in the building, instruction will be given in all the constituent parts of a superior English education, and in French, music, drawing, and embroidery." ² The original curriculum of the Upper Canada Academy was probably not uninfluenced by the precedent of Upper Canada College.

The account of the studies carried on in the academies and private schools has of necessity to be brief, both because the subject does not properly come within the scope of the present inquiry and because of want of authentic records. Much of the story of the early private schools is held tightly in the grip of the past and cannot be wrested from it. Only the scrappiest information has come down to us. It is difficult to piece together

¹Anson Green, *Life and Times*, quoted by Hodgins, *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. II p. 273.

²*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. III, p. 53.

the story of these schools. They were not responsible to any government authorities and were not required to furnish them with any returns. They had an ephemeral existence. Their span of life was often no longer than the master's (or mistress's) teaching career in the locality.

Though not properly forming part of the present study, the academies and private schools are nevertheless not wholly foreign to the main subject under discussion, since there must have been a reciprocal relation between them and the government-aided grammar schools. It appears that the neglect of French in the latter was often, in a measure, made up for by the academies and proprietary schools of the day.¹ Some of these probably made a specialty of teaching French, others taught it as an extra subject and charged a special fee for it. It was taught more often in girls' schools than in boys'.² As a polite accomplishment French was considered of no less moment than music, drawing, or embroidery. These schools doubtless helped to pave the way for the more general recognition of French as a school subject in the fifties.

One of the earliest academies in Upper Canada in which French is known to have been taught was Mr. Latham's English and French Academy, first opened in Kingston some time before 1827 (or early in the same year) and reopened that year. Hodgins quotes the follow-

¹The distinction between the academy and the private school is not always clear cut. Generally speaking the academy was a legally incorporated, semi-publicly controlled institution, deriving its income from fees, occasionally supplemented by government grants. These grants were neither regular nor munificent. Some of the academies were eventually merged in the general school system. The private schools, as their name implies, were proprietary schools, conducted by individuals and depended for their maintenance wholly on fees.

²In the girls' schools the teachers' range of subjects, besides the ordinary studies, frequently comprised "French, ornamental needlework, music and drawing."

ing advertisement, dated October 6, 1817, from the *Kingston Gazette*¹

"Henry Latham, late a clerk in the naval yard, begs leave to inform his friends and the public that from the encouragement he has received from several of the principal inhabitants of the east ward of Kingston he has been induced to reopen the academy at Mr. Baker's stone house in Store street; for the instruction of youth of both sexes in the following useful branches of education, viz.: reading, writing, English grammar and a knowledge of the French language.

In soliciting a share of public patronage he hopes by assiduity and attention not only to the instruction, but to the morals of the pupils entrusted to his charge, to merit a continuance of it."

That French was comprised in the curriculum of a school opened by Mrs. Hart in Kingston in 1822 is clear from the following notice of opening which appeared at the time:

"Mrs. Hart's Young Ladies' Seminary (late Miss Beckwith) will commence on Thursday, the 22nd of August, 1822. Pupils will be instructed in the English and French languages grammatically, writing, arithmetic, bookkeeping, history, elements of astronomy and geography with formation of maps, drawing and needlework. Tuition £25 per annum. (French and drawing each 10 shillings extra per quarter.) Day scholars 15 to 20 shillings per quarter.²

French was taught in 1835 in the senior department of the Grantham Academy in St. Catharines. "The senior department, under the superintendence of Mr. Cockell, includes the Greek, Latin, French, and English languages, mathematics, history, geography, writing and arithmetic."³

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. I, p. 130.

²Hodgins, *Schools and Colleges*, Vol. I, p. 61.

³This information is found in a letter (in the Ontario Bureau of Archives) dated St. Catharines, March 31, 1835, and written by the Rev. James Clarke to Mr. Hamilton Merritt, K.C., to solicit government aid for the academy. On the reverse side of the letter appears a statement (from which the above is quoted) by the headmaster, Mr. Cockell, respecting the programme of the school.

French was an important item in the programme of Miss Mary Proudfoot's private school, opened in the village (now city) of London on August 18, 1835. The original account book kept by the teacher has been preserved (now in possession of the University of Western Ontario) and is of more than usual interest because of the light it throws on the content of the French course in her school. There are records in the book not only of the fees owing and paid by the pupils but also of the books and other school materials supplied to them. The following entries are repeated many times throughout the account book, "To 1 Copy *Télémaque*, 6/9" and "To 1 Copy *Lévizac's Grammar*, 5/0". In one or two places the "Phrase Book" or "French Phrase Book" is mentioned. The curriculum of the school included besides French the English branches, drawing, and music. The school was attended by both boys and girls, though the latter predominated.

Although the common schools sometimes gave instruction in subjects proper to the grammar school curriculum, such as Latin, algebra and geometry, it appears that French was practically never taught by them. The writer has examined numerous returns, both published and unpublished, from boards of education of the district common schools, dealing with hundreds of individual elementary schools prior to 1850. French is given as a subject of study in only one of them! And in that school only one lone scholar is reported as pursuing the study! The case is unique and deserves recording. It is referred to in the "Quarterly Report of a District Common School established in the Village of London, in the London District, in the public square of the Village of London aforesaid, from the 1st July to 30th September,

1834, under the direction of George Boyce, a British subject."¹ The French scholar was named Sarah Harris. The text-book used was Lévizac's French grammar.² In 1850 there were 13 pupils learning French in the common schools of the township of Etobicoke.³

The following is a list, arranged chronologically, of some schools, other than grammar schools, in which French was taught during the period closing about the middle of the century, with the year in which it is known to have been taught:

TABLE 4.—SOME SCHOOLS OTHER THAN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS IN WHICH FRENCH WAS TAUGHT, 1817-1852.

Name of the School or the Teacher	Location	Date
Mr. Latham's English and French Academy....	Kingston	1817
Mrs. Hart's young Ladies' Seminary.....	Kingston	1822
Upper Canada College.....	York	1830
Common School.....	London.....	1834
Grantham Academy.....	St. Catharines	1835
Miss Mary Proudfoot.....	London.....	1835
Upper Canada Academy.....	Cobourg.....	1836
Rev. Geddes ⁴	Hamilton.....	1843
Miss White's Select School ⁵	Simcoe.....	1841
Miss Macnally's School ⁶	Toronto.....	1845
Niagara Classical School ⁷	Niagara.....	1847
Misses Burgess ⁷	Niagara.....	1847
Two schools—teachers' names not given ⁷	St. Catharines	1847
Mrs. Latshaw ⁷	Township of Stamford.....	1847
Select School ⁸	Township of Dunn.....	1848
Mr. Davis ⁹	Drummondsville.....	1848
Mrs. Shorter ⁹	Chippawa.....	1848
Mr. Hall ⁹	Chippawa.....	1848
Monsieur and Madame Deslandes' Academy ⁹	Toronto	1849
Common School.....	Township of Etobicoke.....	1850
Toronto Academy ¹⁰	Toronto.....	1852

¹"Educational Papers", No. 466.

²When Miss Proudfoot opened her school in London in 1835, Sarah Harris with four sisters and a brother, were among the first pupils to be enrolled. The purchase of "1 Copy *Télémaque*" is recorded, but there is no mention of Lévizac's Grammar. This book Sarah had evidently acquired while at Boyce's school.

³*Journal of Education for Upper Canada*, 1850, Vol. III, p. 77.

Unfortunately much significance cannot be attached to Ryerson's summary,

CHAPTER V

THE FRENCH INVASION (1854-1865)

An event of momentous import to the schools of Upper Canada took place in 1844, when Egerton Ryerson was appointed superintendent of education. The event proved epochal. It marked a turning point in the history of education in the province.

Ryerson's appointment did not, however, effect any immediate change in the fortunes of the grammar schools, since his authority was, at first, confined to the common schools. Each of these two types of schools continued, for a time, to have a separate existence. The grammar schools remained under the control of King's College Council, while the common schools were now placed under the jurisdiction of the superintendent and the General Board of Education.¹

Ryerson, however, early turned his attention to the grammar schools. He found fault with their exclusive character. In his annual report for 1850 he complains that, "Pupils who are learning the first elements of an English education are sent and admitted to the grammar school, because it is thought to be more respectable than

contained in the annual report for 1847, of the number of common schools in which French was taught. Ryerson's information is derived from replies to a vaguely worded heading in the blank forms that were sent out. See also p. 58 ante.

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. V, p. 282. Both French and German were taught.

²Quoted from the *Norfolk Observer* of 1841, in Bannister, *Early Educational History of Norfolk County*.

³Robertson, *Landmarks of Toronto*, p. 33.

⁴*Journal of Education for Upper Canada*, 1847, Vol. I, pp. 82ff.

⁵*Ibid.*, 1848, Vol. II, p. 78.

⁶*Ibid.*, 1849, Vol. II, p. 102.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, 1852.

¹The General Board of Education, which was established in 1846, consisted of the superintendent of education and six members appointed by the Governor-General.

the common school." The rather high fees charged by the grammar schools made them inaccessible to the mass of the people. Yet in many cases their programmes differed but little from those of the common schools. Nor did the latter always confine themselves to elementary school work, but frequently offered instruction in subjects properly belonging to the grammar school course.

Ryerson cried out against the anomaly of two systems operating independently, paralleling and overlapping each other. Instead of being complementary, the grammar and the common schools were really encroaching upon each others' domains. The grammar schools, according to him, were not fulfilling the purpose for which they were intended, namely, as a connecting link between the common schools and the university. Ryerson conceived of a properly co-ordinated system of education as an "educational ladder" whose topmost rungs symbolized the university; the lowest and intermediate ones, the common and the grammar schools. He advocated, to quote his own words, "a system of public instruction, commencing with the common school and terminating with the university; being connected and harmonious throughout, and equally embracing all classes." The co-ordination of elementary and secondary education was a necessary condition for the achievement of this ideal.

Legislation was accordingly passed in 1853, which was designed to effect such co-ordination. The Act of that year endeavoured to articulate elementary and secondary education by uniting both in one system. The grammar schools were now brought, jointly with the common schools, under the control of a Council of Public Instruction headed by the superintendent of education.¹

¹By the Act of 1850 the General Board of Education passed out of existence and was superseded by the Council of Public Instruction.

The law of 1853 sought to stimulate greater local interest in the grammar schools as well as to exert stronger central control over them. To achieve the first object the powers and responsibilities of the local authorities were extended. The county councils were now authorized to appoint trustees for each grammar school in the county. Hitherto these had been designated by the Crown, and each board of trustees had had under its jurisdiction all the grammar schools of the county. The county councils were also given permission to levy assessments for the support of the grammar schools. The appointment of masters henceforth rested entirely with the trustees, provided the masters possessed certain qualifications which were now specified for the first time. The central control over these schools, as we have seen, was vested in the Council of Public Instruction and the superintendent of education. It was the business of the council to prescribe courses of study and text-books for the grammar schools and, through the agency of special grammar school inspectors, to exercise supervision over these schools.

Certain studies were made obligatory by the Act. It prescribed that instruction be given "in all the higher branches of a practical English and commercial education, including the elements of natural philosophy and mechanics, and also in the Latin and Greek languages and mathematics so far as to prepare students for University College or any college affiliated to the University of Toronto." Modern languages were not specified by the Act. This omission was, however, supplied in the programme of studies issued by the Council of Public Instruction in 1854, to become effective the following year.

In the programme of studies of 1854 we have the first

instance of an official prescription of French for the grammar schools. One proviso in the prescribed course, however, militated considerably against the general study of this language in the schools, namely, the clause which exempted pupils who were preparing for the university from taking any subjects in the programme of studies not required for matriculation. Since French was not for some years a prerequisite for entrance into the university, it is not surprising that many students did not take advantage of the new opportunities for the study of French in the grammar schools and continued to devote themselves to those subjects only that were demanded for matriculation.

Nevertheless the effect of the new programme of studies was pronounced. There was a rapid and continuous influx of French pupils. In 1854 their number was negligible. Five years later—four years after the enforcement of the new regulations—they constituted an important portion of the entire grammar school attendance. French came into the schools with a momentum that was unprecedented. There was a French invasion in miniature.

The study of French in the grammar schools was at last coming into its own. There were several causes for the more general recognition of French, as shown by its acceptance by the Council of Public Instruction, as a standard secondary school study and by the rapid influx of pupils into the French course. Some of these causes have already been referred to in a preceding chapter. Others will now be discussed.

As we have seen, eminent men in the province had at various times recommended the study of French. Its importance was recognized by Dr. Strachan, Sir John Colborne, William Craigie, the members of the Parliamentary Commission of 1839, and Egerton Ryerson.

Egerton Ryerson was alive not only to the general educational value of French but to its special practical significance to Canadians. He had put French in the curriculum of the Upper Canada Academy in 1836.¹ He had outlined a course of study in French for Victoria College when it was first opened in 1842 and was keenly chagrined when a shortage of funds forbade the engagement of a modern language master.²

Complaining of the lack of such a master in 1843, he says: "This deficiency is a great disadvantage to the institution, and a serious loss to many of the pupils who are desirous of studying—especially the French language—and the study of which (independently of its being regarded as a valuable literary accomplishment) is, I think, very important to all Canadian youths who are likely to take a part in the public affairs of United Canada."³ When the college was removed to Toronto in 1850 Ryerson expressed his satisfaction with the change of location in view of "all the facilities that Toronto could afford, in respect to special teachers in vocal music, drawing, modern languages, etc."⁴

That the desire to acquire a knowledge of the French language was not uncommon in the early forties in Upper Canada is evidenced by the publication, in 1843, of a Canadian edition of Lévizac's French Grammar, evidently the first French grammar to be printed in Ontario.⁵ There was, apparently, a growing realization on the part of many people in the province that a knowledge of

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. II, p. 273. See also *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 53.

²*Ibid.*, Vol. IV, pp. 218 f.

³In a report to the Governor, quoted in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. V, pp. 91 f.

⁴*Ibid.*, IX, p. 154.

⁵As far as can be ascertained the first original foreign modern language textbook to be published in Ontario was a German manual, *A Key to German Conversation*, by Jacob Hirschfelder, Toronto, 1845.

French was desirable as a means of freer intercourse with the large French population of the neighbouring province, especially for commercial purposes. This is alluded to in the introduction to the Canadian reprint of the grammar, "In Canada it (French) is more especially necessary to the man of business, who is daily brought in contact with a large population whose language is French."

In introducing the study of French the Council of Public Instruction did not really introduce an absolutely new subject into the schools of Upper Canada. French had never been entirely extraneous to the grammar school programme. Though it had not, as we have seen, for various reasons, gained a firm foothold in the schools, its study had been pursued with varying fortunes for at least four decades. Furthermore there was the example of the colleges. Both Upper Canada College and Upper Canada Academy (afterwards Victoria College) planned for French courses from their very inception. The study of the language, as was noted in the preceding chapter, was also fostered in many of the academies and private schools of the period. Moreover, French had found its way into the curricula of both Victoria College and University College before 1854. In the former a professor of modern languages was appointed in 1850,¹ and in the latter in 1853. This raised materially the prestige of the subject. The introduction of French into the university curriculum inevitably led to an entrance examination in the language, and stimulated its study in secondary schools.

Ontario has always shown marked susceptibility to foreign educational influences. The early period, as we have seen, was characterized by adherence to the educational precedents of the mother country; after the

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. X, p. 84.

middle of the century American and continental influences were strongly in evidence. Ryerson's extensive educational tour, prior to assuming his duties as superintendent of education, was the immediate cause of these marked continental and American influences. He was bent on introducing into the schools of the province the best ingredients culled from all educational systems, whether in Europe or in the United States. The latter probably furnished more examples for imitation than other countries, due to the similarity of economic and social conditions in Upper Canada and the American states. In any event, those entrusted with the direction of education in the province at this time looked for guidance and help wherever they could find it, and in their adoption of many educational measures they were potently influenced by practices in foreign lands. It was natural, too, that Upper Canada, with its scanty population and limited educational facilities, should be sensitive to influences from abroad. These influences were especially marked on the curriculum that was issued in 1854 and which, as has already been noted, contained the first official sanction for the study of French in the grammar schools.

What was the situation in the leading European countries and in the United States at this period as regards the study of modern languages?

In Prussia¹ French had become an optional subject in most gymnasia, or secondary schools, by the beginning of the nineteenth century. For political reasons, however, the study of the language was discontinued in 1816, but was later reintroduced. In 1831 French was made compulsory in the Prussian gymnasia from *Tertia* (i.e., the

¹See article on "Modern Languages and Literature" in Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education*.

fourth year of a nine-year course) on. The other German states were not long in following the example of Prussia.

In France¹ the study of modern languages made little headway in the *lycées* and *collèges* (secondary schools) before the end of the thirties. The subject was made optional in 1821, but failed to receive adequate recognition from the educational authorities, who placed small value on it as a school subject and allotted but little time to its study. In the late thirties, however, modern languages were made obligatory in the "classical" course, and a decade later also in the "modern" course. By the middle of the century, therefore, the modern languages occupied a prominent position in the secondary schools of France.

In the United States² the study of French in the secondary schools experienced many changes of fortune before it was permanently admitted to the curriculum. It was studied in many schools early in the nineteenth century but did not take firm root before the middle of the century. After 1850, however, the subject became general and permanent in American high schools. It was introduced into the Boston Latin School and the Boston Normal School for Female Teachers in 1852, the Cincinnati high schools in 1853, the Chicago high schools in 1856, and many other schools. Thereafter the study of French spread rapidly.

There were then many influences that tended to stimulate the study of French in the grammar schools of Upper Canada about the middle of the nineteenth century. Hence it is not surprising to find, as was previously noted, that this subject was studied in a large number of schools

¹*Ibid.*

²See Handschin, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, U.S. Bureau of Education, Bul. No. 3, 1913.

even before the new programme of studies, in which it was prescribed, went into force. We have no definite data prior to 1854, the year just before the new regulations became effective. In that year French was studied in about 48 per cent. of the grammar schools, although the number of French pupils for the whole province was only about 225.¹ Nevertheless, it is quite evident that teachers of French had become relatively numerous and that opportunities for the study of the language in grammar schools were not uncommon.

The French course prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction shows the same general characteristics as marked the French courses suggested or followed earlier in the history of the province. According to the new programme, French was to be begun in the third year and to be taken throughout the remainder of the five-year course. In the courses suggested by Strachan, and in the course at Upper Canada College, it will be recalled, French was likewise postponed until the pupils had first acquired some grounding in the other subjects of the curriculum. There were a great many of the more elementary studies clamouring for attention in the early stages of the secondary school course, and during this period, moreover, a substantial beginning had to be made in the rudiments of Latin grammar. Consequently the study of French was deferred. The importance of laying the foundation of a good French pronunciation at an age

¹I estimate the number at about 225. The total number of pupils studying French in 1854 is not given in the Superintendent's Report. Only the enrolment in the various branches of the subject (grammar, composition, reader, etc.) is indicated. The number in grammar is given as 204. Since in the next three years the students taking French grammar constituted from 90 to 93% of the total in the subject, we are safe in assuming that the same relationship also obtained in 1854 and that consequently the total number taking French was between 220 and 225.

when the learner's vocal organs are most impressionable was not generally recognized.

There was another characteristic shared by the earlier French programmes and the one prescribed by the Council in 1854—the strong classical bias in the choice of the authors to be read. In this, as in other respects, the pattern of the Greek and Latin courses was followed. French came into the curriculum as a sort of understudy to Latin, and it was only natural that texts and methods similar to those used in acquiring the classical language should also be used in learning the modern one. If Terence and Sallust and Ovid furnished the proper material for the one, then what could be more suitable for the other than Molière and Voltaire and Fénelon? Similarly the French grammar text-books authorized were in the main modelled after the Latin grammars, with their exhaustive treatment of each part of speech, arranged in strictly logical sequence, with their conjugations and declensions and parsings. The study of French grammar evidently held the focal place in the French course. Although written exercises were demanded, most weight seems to have been attached to the study of grammar *per se*. It was not merely a means for the acquisition of a knowledge of the language; it was also an end in itself.

The French course prescribed was, nevertheless, in several respects a fairly complete one. In addition to a thorough grounding in grammar, provision was also made for written and oral exercises and, in the highest class, the reading of two texts was prescribed. Other details of the course may be gathered from the French programme which is reproduced in table 5.

The Council also prescribed a list of text-books for the French course but granted the trustees of each school

TABLE 5.—FRENCH PROGRAMME PRESCRIBED BY THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN 1854 AND EFFECTIVE FROM 1855 TO 1865¹

Classes	French Course
First or Lowest	None
Second	None
Third	Elements of French grammar to end of irregular verbs, with exercises, oral and written translations.
Fourth	Rules on the use of the pronouns and participles, with exercises. Oral and written translations.
Fifth	Syntax and idioms. Composition, oral and written translations. Fénelon, <i>Dialogues des Morts</i> . Molière, <i>Les Fourberies de Scapin</i> . Previous subjects reviewed. In 1857 the prescription in authors was changed to Voltaire, <i>Histoire de Charles XII</i> .

fairly wide discretion in their selection of books from among those authorized. A choice of one of the following four grammars was allowed: Merlet's *French Grammar* (English edition), Arnold's *First French Book*, Noël and Chapsal's *French Grammar* (in French), and Collot's *Lévizac's French Grammar*. In addition, the use of one of four French readers was authorized, viz., Merlet's *Le Traducteur*, Collot's *Pronouncing Reader*, Collot's

TABLE 6.—FRENCH TEXT-BOOKS OTHER THAN AUTHORS, PRESCRIBED BY THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, AND EFFECTIVE FROM 1855 TO 1865

Grammars	Readers	Dictionaries	Miscellaneous
Merlet's Grammar, Arnold's First Book, Noël and Chapsal's Grammar (in French), Collot's Lévizac's Grammar.	Collot's Pronouncing Reader, Collot's Interlinear Reader, Collot's Anecdotes and Questions, Merlet's Le Traducteur.	Collot's French and English Dictionary, Spier's and Surenné's French and English Dictionary, Merlet's Dictionary of Difficulties.	Collot's Dialogues and Phrases, Surenné's New Manual, Arnold's Vocabulary.

¹See Annual Report for 1854, Appendix E, Section II, p. 154.

Interlinear Reader, and Collot's *Anecdotes and Questions*. The list of French dictionaries comprised Merlet's *Dictionary of Difficulties*, Collot's *French and English Dictionary*, and Spiers' and Surenné's *French and English Dictionary*. There were also books on French conversation and specified editions of the French authors prescribed.¹

The following is the list of prescribed French authors as given in the *Journal of Education for Upper Canada*, 1855. Evidently this is a modification of the original list. Options were apparently allowed:

FRENCH AUTHORS PRESCRIBED IN 1855

Fénelon, *Dialogue des Morts* (French edition).

Molière, *Les Fourberies de Scapin*.

Fénelon, *Télémaque* (Le Brun's or Surenné's).

Voltaire, *Charles XII* (Surenné's).

Voltaire, *Alzire*.

The wide range permitted in the choice of text-books was a concession to the prevailing diversity in the school books actually used. It was Ryerson's avowed intention gradually to effect greater uniformity. However, it was thought inadvisable to insist on this from the outset for two reasons. In the first place, the diverse predilections of the teachers had to be met, and secondly, it was necessary to have regard for the inconvenience that would result from a sudden change in the comparatively expensive school books in use. For the present, therefore, all that was demanded was consistency as far as each school was concerned. Each school, for example, was ordered to use only one of the four grammars prescribed, one of the dictionaries and so on. In any event, there was as yet no trace of that inflexible and uncom-

¹See Annual Report for 1854, p. 159.

promising uniformity that became characteristic of Ontario in later years.

It appears that in practice the diversity in the text-books used was even greater than that sanctioned by official regulations.¹ Thus, in addition to the prescribed grammars, there were a number of unauthorized French grammars widely current. Of these the most generally favoured was Ollendorff's *French Grammar*. Fasquelle's book was also studied in a number of schools. The educational authorities had no choice but to wink at this disregard of official regulations, since they were alive to the inadequacy of many of the books prescribed. Many of these had become out of date, and newer and better manuals had made their appearance² and had been introduced into a large number of grammar schools. It was folly then to attempt to enforce the use of the antiquated books. The remedy lay in authorizing a new list of text-books, which was done in 1865. Of these an account will be given in the next chapter.

The authorized French grammars enjoyed varying degrees of favour. One of them, Arnold's *French Book*, was scarcely used at all and was completely discontinued a few years after it was prescribed. Two other grammars—Merlet's and Noël and Chapsal's—had but small vogue.

TABLE 7.—NUMBER OF SCHOOLS USING THE FOLLOWING FRENCH GRAMMARS BETWEEN 1855 AND 1861

	1855	1856	1857	1858	1859	1860	1861
Merlet's French Grammar	1	4	4	3	3	5	5
Noël and Chapsal	1	1	2	3	2	3	4
Collot's or Bolmar's Lévizac	17	15	16	14	4	6	10
Arnold's French Books	4	2
Number of Other French Grammars	22	24	34	36	57	66	71

¹I gather this information from the inspectors' special reports (unpublished) on the individual schools.

²See Inspector's report in Annual Report for 1862, p. 146.

The only prescribed grammar that enjoyed a degree of popularity was Collot's (or Bolmar's) *Lévizac*. The summary in table 7 is compiled from the superintendent's annual reports for the given years.

We have seen that chairs in modern languages were established in both University College and Victoria College after 1850. A certain admission requirement in modern languages was a necessary corollary. But although the senate of the University of Toronto prescribed French for the matriculation examination in arts as early as 1854¹ the prescription was neither general (that for pass candidates, it appears, was soon discontinued) nor was any attempt made to enforce it. The prescription for honours candidates consisted of French grammar and the following texts: Fénelon, *Dialogues des Morts* and Molière, *Les Fourberies de Scapin*. Since, however, these requirements are not specified in the calendars of the University prior to 1861-62, it is clear that they were not enforced until then.

Meanwhile other faculties of the University had prescribed French for matriculation. It was required by the faculty of law in 1858. The subjects for candidates for honours and scholarships were French grammar and Voltaire's *Charles XII*. No French was required for pass matriculants in law. The matriculation prescription for civil engineering between 1857 and 1864 also comprised the same requirements. It was not required, however, for the matriculation examination in agriculture. We see then that by 1861 French had become a prerequisite for admission into the faculties of law and

¹See Annual Report for 1854, pp. 164f; *Journal of Education*, June, 1857, Vol. X, No. 6, p. 83. See also Alexander, *The University of Toronto and its Colleges*, p. 81.

engineering and was also prescribed for honours and scholarship candidates in the faculty of arts.

Nevertheless, French was not demanded of the majority of students seeking admission into the university. Possibly the French requirement was not rigidly enforced in any of the courses, and certainly not in the arts courses prior to 1861. Ryerson's testimony is of interest in this connection, even though, because of its patently biased nature, we cannot accept his entire statement literally. But although his account of the state of modern language instruction and the requirements for admission into University College in 1861 is unquestionably coloured by his hostility to that institution and was clearly intended to disparage its achievements, it does, nevertheless, even when due allowance is made for his motives, attest to the absence of any generally enforced entrance requirements in modern languages. For want of an obligatory matriculation examination in modern languages the course in this department at the university, according to Ryerson, had of necessity to be of an elementary nature. He says:

"In other universities where these languages (French and German) are recognized as part of the university course, a matriculation examination is required in them, as in Latin and Greek. Not so in the Toronto University College, which is a mere girls' school for French or German, where the students learn the sounds of the letters, and so on to the pronunciation of the words, the declensions of nouns, adjectives and pronouns, and the conjugations of the verbs. Yet a learned professor is employed to teach, and honour university students are engaged in this profound a, b, c, of French and German, and even scholarships, prizes, and certificates of honour are instituted to reward the successful competitors! I happen to know that the examination questions in one of these "Modern Languages" given to the university scholarship candidates were also given to a class

of boys in a grammar school, and the boys quite distanced the undergraduates in their answering; yet the one was an ordinary grammar school exercise, and the other was an university scholarship examination; but the prize of the best gownsmen in the race was a thirty pound scholarship and a convocation eulogy, while the reward of the still better boy was the approval of his master and a direction what to get for his next lesson. But for a pass-man there is not so much as a single exercise of conversation in French, or German, in the whole university course which, it appears, does not advance so far in these modern languages as in an ordinary school for young ladies."¹

Notwithstanding that the study of French was not compulsory on most intending matriculants, there was, nevertheless, as we have seen, an unusually rapid increase in the number of grammar school pupils learning the subject after the publication of the new programme. The enrolment in French jumped in five years from 225² to 1,178, representing an increase of more than 400 per cent. The year just before the new regulations became operative the registration in French constituted about five per cent. of the total attendance. Five years later the enrolment in this subject had grown to about twenty-seven per cent. of the total enrolment.

For the next four years, however, the increment in the number of French scholars in proportion to the total attendance proceeded at a retarded rate, and thereafter and to the end of the decade under review practically no gains were made. The saturation point for the period then was reached in 1864, when pupils in French had come to form 31 per cent. of the entire grammar school population. See Table 8 and Fig. 1.

The growth of the body of French students during the

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XVI, pp. 273-274.

²See page 87, *ante*.

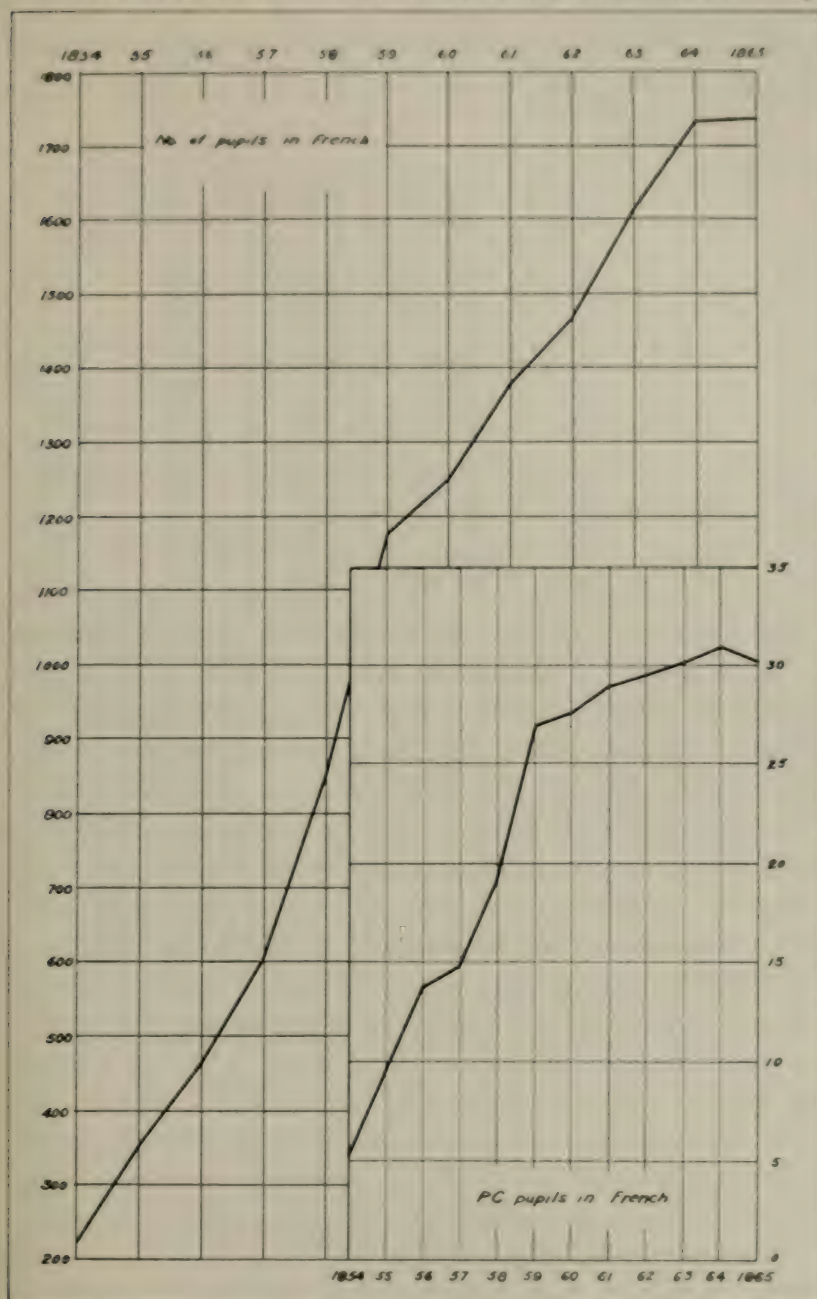


Fig. 1.—GROWTH OF FRENCH ENROLMENT IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA BETWEEN 1854 AND 1865

The growth is indicated in terms of the rise in both the number and the percentage of pupils studying French.

TABLE 8.—INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS TEACHING FRENCH AND IN THE NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE SUBJECT BETWEEN 1854 AND 1865

Year	Number of Grammar Schools		Per cent. Teaching French	Number of Pupils		Per cent. in French
	Total	Teaching French		Total	In French	
1854	64	31	48.44	4287	225	5.25
1855	65	43	66.15	3726	355	9.53
1856	61	40	65.57	3386	462	13.64
1857	72	51	70.83	4073	601	14.75
1858	75	56	74.66	4459	851	19.08
1859	81	62	76.54	4381	1178	26.88
1860	88	71	80.68	4546	1246	27.41
1861	86	79	91.86	4765	1375	28.86
1862	91	86	94.50	4982	1462	29.35
1863	95	84	88.42	5352	1610	30.08
1864	95	91	95.79	5589	1729	30.94
1865	104	94	90.38	5754	1733	30.12

period under review was the result both of the expansion in the number of schools in which French was taught and the increase in the French enrolment in the individual schools. In 1854 there were only two schools with more than twenty French scholars each; in 1865 there were about thirty schools having each an enrolment in French in excess of twenty. In the former year twelve out of the thirty-one schools giving instruction in French had each one to three pupils in the subject; in the latter year only three schools out of ninety-four had three pupils or fewer each in French. At the beginning of the period the typical French enrolment in each of the schools in which French was taught consisted of one to three pupils, at the end of the period the commonest number of French pupils on the roll in each such school was seven to nine. The average number of French scholars per school was seven in 1854 and nineteen in 1865.

The rise in the importance of French as a grammar school study is further illustrated by a comparison of

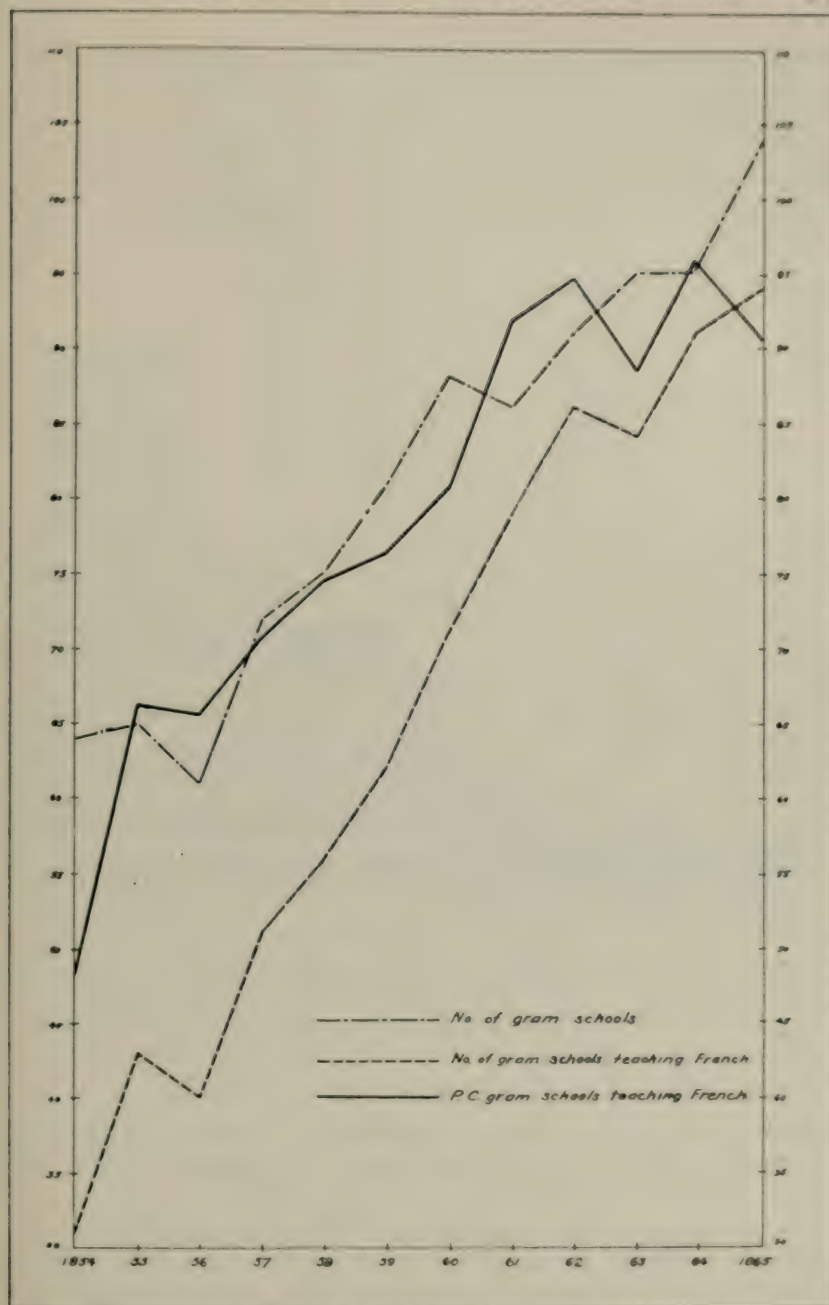


Fig. 2.—INCREASE IN NUMBER OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS TEACHING FRENCH BETWEEN 1854 AND 1865

The increase in both the number and the per cent. of grammar schools teaching French is shown.

TABLE 9.—INCREASE IN ENROLMENT IN THE VARIOUS SUBJECTS OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL PROGRAMME FROM 1855 TO 1865

Subjects	Number of Pupils	
	1855	1865
Physical Science..	1453	2429
English.....	3329	5666
Arithmetic.....	3151	5491
Geography.....	2029	5281
History.....	2036	4532
Euclid.....	676	1857
Algebra.....	833	2468
Greek.....	235	735
Latin.....	1039	3669
French.....	365	1733

the gains, in terms of the percentage of increase in the enrolment, made by this subject and the other subjects of the curriculum from 1855 to 1865. The percentage of increase in French is found to be far in excess of that of any other subject in the programme of studies. In ten years the French registration in the province increased by 374 per cent.¹ During the same period the total grammar school attendance increased by only 54 per cent. The largest gain next to French was made in the Latin enrolment which increased by 253 per cent. The subjects in which the percentage of increase was smallest (varying from 67 to 80 per cent.) were physical science, English, arithmetic, and geography. The small proportional gains in these are to be ascribed to the relatively large number of the pupils in these studies at the beginning of the period, since they were prescribed by the Act (see page 81 ante) and constituted the compulsory subjects of

¹A comparison of the French enrolment of 1854 and 1865 would bring into still greater relief the gains made by this subject, for during this period the registration in French showed an increase of 600%. Unfortunately, however, the statistical data for the various grammar school subjects for 1854 are not available in a convenient form and a comparison cannot easily be instituted.

the programme.¹ In table 9 and fig. 3 the subjects of the grammar school course are arranged in an ascending scale, corresponding to the magnitude of the percentage of increase in the enrolment in these subjects during the decade under review. French occupies the highest place in the scale.

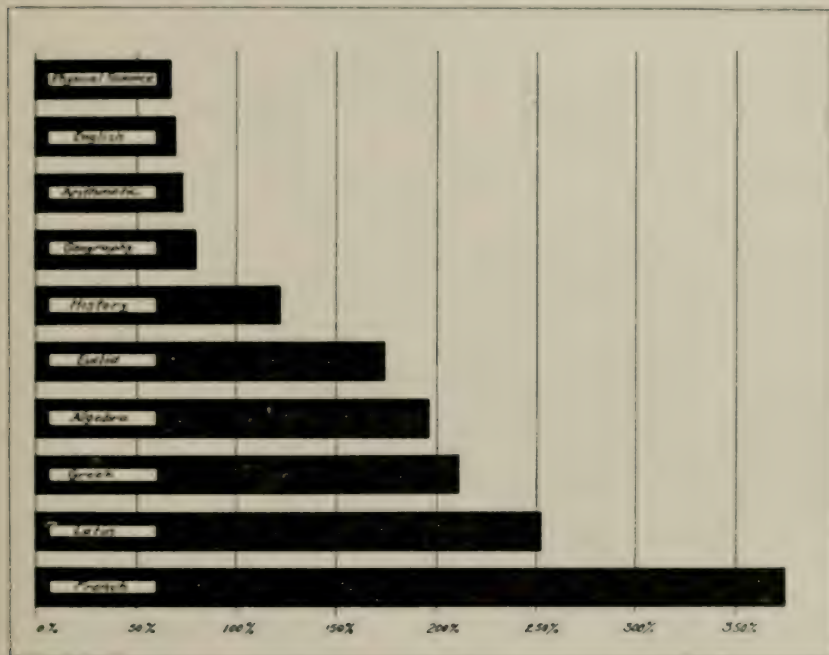


Fig. 3.—PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE IN ENROLMENT IN THE VARIOUS SUBJECTS OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL PROGRAMME FROM 1855 TO 1865

For the number of pupils in each subject in 1855 and 1865, see table 9.

By 1865 French was being taught in practically every grammar school in Upper Canada. This was made possible because the number of French teachers had increased, since, according to the regulations passed by the Council of Public Instruction in 1854 candidates,

¹In connection with physical science it should be remembered that what passed as instruction in physical science was frequently nothing more than reading lessons in books on this subject.

other than university graduates, aspiring for masterships in the grammar schools were required to pass, along with other examinations, an examination in French. An effort was also made, by means of the Model Grammar School, opened in 1858, to exemplify the best methods of teaching the secondary school subjects, including French. From

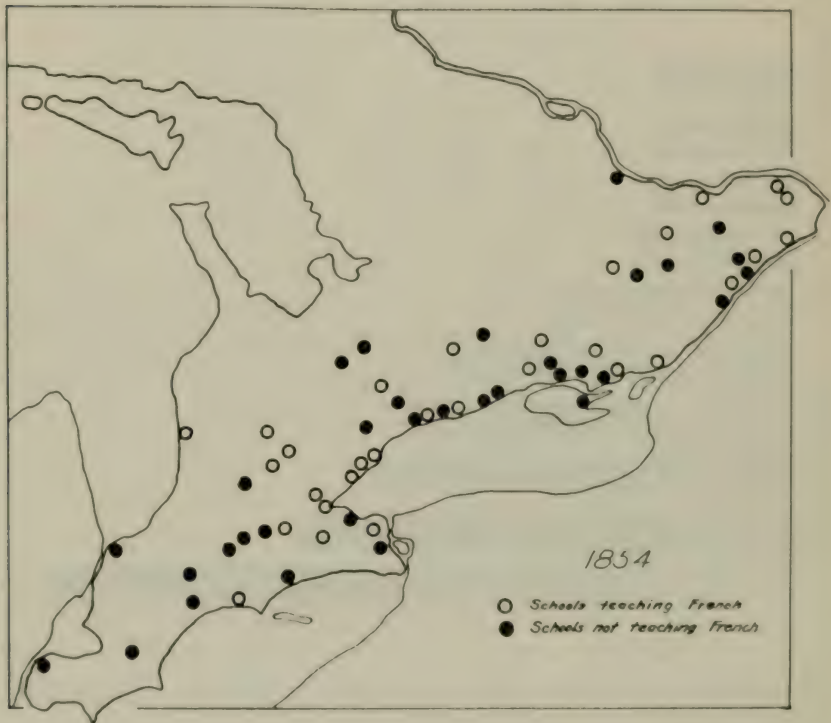


Fig. 4.—DISTRIBUTION OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS TEACHING FRENCH IN 1854

1855 onward the inspectors made periodical visits to the schools and were required along with other things to report on the way in which French was being taught; whether attention was being paid to proper pronunciation, whether the pupils were being grounded in the grammar of the language, its peculiar structure, and idiomatic expressions. By 1865 then the study of French in the

grammar schools had assumed an importance not previously accorded to it.

From what has been said it must not be inferred, however, that French had now attained a rank of equality with the time-honoured subjects of the secondary school course, for despite the rapid rate of increase in the

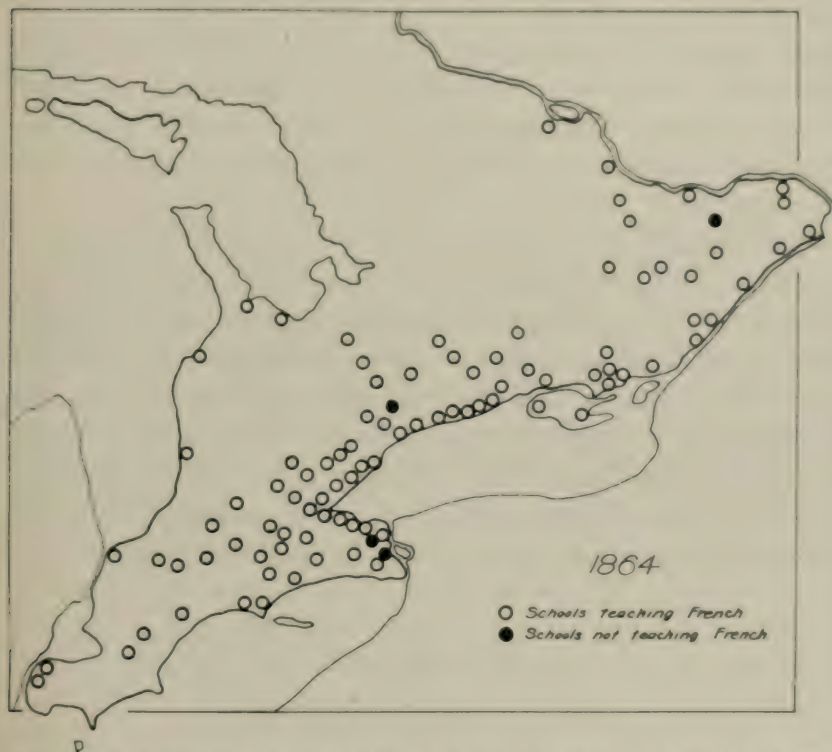


Fig. 5.—DISTRIBUTION OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS TEACHING FRENCH IN 1864

number of students in this subject, they were still numerically inferior to those in the older subjects of the curriculum, nor was the study of French generally held to be of as much consequence as the pursuit of the older studies. We have merely tried to show what rapid headway was made by French as a grammar school subject and how it had risen in the course of a decade from a position of

obscurity to one of comparative prominence, how the number of French students had grown, during that period, from one in twenty to almost one in three, and had increased proportionately more rapidly than the students of any other subject.

In fact, so rapid was the influx of French pupils after 1854 that in the course of a few years they far outnumbered the Greek pupils, nearly overtook the pupils in euclid, and were steadily gaining on those in Latin. It looked as if French were in a fair way to challenge the supremacy of the old established subjects of the curriculum.

This challenge, the traditionalists, the sponsors of classical learning, were determined to forestall. They insisted on the priority of the older studies both in higher and secondary education; the cultivation of the classics and mathematics was the primary business of both the university and the grammar school. They were resolved to resist any attempt by the upstarts of the curriculum to usurp the vested rights of those studies. Of this subject more will be said in the following chapter.

CHAPTER VI

THE CLASSICAL RIVALRY

(1866-1870)

The programme of studies issued in 1854 had raised materially the prestige not only of French but also of the other newer school subjects, such as history, geography, and physical science, and had quickened an interest in their study. The revised curriculum of the University of Toronto had likewise tended to heighten the importance of these subjects. The newer studies

were thus gradually rising to a position of consequence and gaining a foothold in both the secondary schools and the university.

But this prominence of the modern school subjects was by no means approved by all educationists. The opposition of the traditionalists, as has already been noted, was still strong and widespread, particularly in the sphere of higher education. As a result a bitter controversy ensued between the champions of the time-honoured curriculum and those who pressed the claims of the newer studies, a controversy that was not untinged by rancour which had its roots in denominational bias and personal feeling.

A parliamentary investigation in 1860 (instigated by the Wesleyan Methodist Church and other denominational bodies) into the financial affairs of the University of Toronto¹ was made the occasion of an inquiry into the educational system of that institution. The importance attached to modern languages in the programme of University College² came in for severe criticism by those who sponsored the traditional curriculum. Their invectives were often as bitter as they were unreasoned. They complained that the tried practices of the past were being flouted, that the cherished educational traditions were in danger, and insisted that it was the proper business of the university to impart "classical and mathematical learning" and not to dissipate its energies on the new-fangled studies.

In his testimony before the parliamentary committee

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XV, pp. 98ff.

²By the Hincks Act of 1853 the University of Toronto ceased to be a teaching institution and became merely an examining and legislative body. The work of instruction was entrusted to University College, which was then created, and to any other colleges that might enter into affiliation with the University of Toronto. In reality, however, University College and the University of Toronto were practically the same institution. See Wallace, *A History of the University of Toronto*, and Alexander, *The University of Toronto and its Colleges*, p. 39.

Dr. Cook, president of Queen's College, said: "I think the study of modern languages, to any great extent, at a university, injurious to the acquirement of classical and mathematical learning, which is the main purpose of a university education to communicate."¹ Professor Weir of the same institution expressed similar views. He said that moderns were not taught at Queen's, nor did he deem their study desirable. Even without them there was little enough time for "the proper work of a college."²

Ryerson's testimony is of especial interest. With characteristic dexterity he made a complete *volte-face* from his former position³ and now took up the cudgels for the traditional curriculum, in opposition to the newer courses and system of options that had recently been introduced into University College. He was undoubtedly under the influence of a feeling of not unreasonable resentment at the special privileges which had been accorded to that institution and which were denied to Victoria College and the other denominational colleges. When asked by the Committee, "Do you think there should be a professor of modern languages?" Ryerson replied:

"I think not. But there should be a tutor, and I think the tutor should be chiefly paid by the fees of students. In Harvard University these are extra studies, and the tutors are paid by fees. I think that the period of attendance at a university is not the time for studying modern languages, but that the student's attention should be exclusively devoted to the recognized subjects of a university education, — that the study of the elements of the modern languages should be an extra study, and that the tutors employed should be chiefly paid by fees from students."⁴

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XV, p. 106.

²*Ibid.*, p. 120.

³See page 83 ante.

⁴*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XV, pp. 117 and 118.

The controversy on the "university question" revealed a definite cleavage among the educationists of Upper Canada on the subject of the curriculum, and we find them ranged in two opposing camps—the modernists and the traditionalists. Ryerson, as has been pointed out, chiefly because of his opposition to the University of Toronto, threw in his lot with the sponsors of the traditional curriculum and contested the claims of modern languages to a place in the university programme. His attitude to that study in the grammar schools, too, as we shall have occasion to note, appears to have been affected by the vehement contest in which he engaged.

John Langton and Dr. Daniel Wilson appeared as the champions of the newer studies. Mr. Langton, vice-chancellor of the University of Toronto, defended the study of modern languages on the ground of their utility. Latin, he argued, had ceased to be the universal language; three-quarters of the world's learning and science was now written in French and German. Hence the knowledge of at least one of these languages was indispensable. The former was especially important to Canadians. "French, in a country circumstanced like Canada, may well be considered essential."¹ He complained that "a new dynasty of Latin and Greek is sought to be raised up in the universities of Canada."² Daniel (later Sir Daniel) Wilson, professor of history and English literature in University College, likewise defended the new course which had replaced the exclusively classical and mathematical programme in University College. The object of a university education in Canada, he contended, ought not to be intellectual culture alone, but preparation for the practical duties of life. A knowledge of modern

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XV, p. 170.

²*Ibid.*, p. 183.

languages was desirable, especially of French, "for every educated man in this country . . . ought to know at least French, which is here a spoken language."¹

The controversy was continued with growing asperity. The defenders of the older ideals of a university education clamoured loudest and called for the restoration of the study of classics to its position of pre-eminence.

In the sphere of secondary education, too, greater stress on the study of Greek and Latin came now to be demanded.² The primary function of the grammar school, it was asserted, was the cultivation of these languages. But the inspectors found that the grammar schools were still doing, to a great extent, work properly belonging to the common school. They reported "the absence of a desire for classical learning among the rural population," and found fault generally with the system of secondary school education in vogue.

The inadequacy of the Act of 1853 was now patent. Ryerson proposed to introduce new legislation to remedy the existing evils in grammar school education and insure, along with other things, the primacy of the classics. This was to be effected by apportioning the legislative grant solely upon the basis of the number of pupils studying Greek or Latin. The superintendent sought to have this principle incorporated in the new Act that was under consideration in 1865, as he had already incorporated it, though ineffectually, in the revised regulations that were issued early that year.

The assistant superintendent, J. G. Hodgins, who had gone to Quebec to confer with the government and see

¹*Ibid.*, p. 215.

²In England a Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the administration and management of the great Public Schools had brought in a report in 1864 advocating that the classics "continue to hold, as they do now, the principal place in Public School education."

the bill through, was quick to sense the hostility of many members of the House of Assembly to the proposed "Latin and Greek basis", even though John A. Macdonald was disposed to stand by it.¹ The Hon. William Macdougall, the provincial secretary, who had charge of the measure in the House, counselled the inclusion of French grammar in the basis of distributing the annual grant, in the event of a compromise becoming necessary. Mr. Hodgins inclined to the same view, and in one of his letters from Quebec to his chief he says: "The general opinion here is that the basis of Greek and Latin alone, to the exclusion of all other subjects of a *bona fide* grammar school education, would be unjust and very discouraging."² In another letter he refers again to the hostility to the Greek and Latin clause and the wisdom of including modern languages in the basis of distribution: "I feel sure that we shall have to abandon the 'Latin and Greek' basis, and make it broader, in the direction of modern languages."³

Ryerson was determined not to deviate from his object of recognizing, for the purpose of the government grant, only those pupils who were engaged in the study of classics. Writing to the assistant superintendent he says: "I . . . propose that pupils studying French, but not Greek and Latin, shall be admitted to grammar schools, but that the average attendance of pupils in Greek, or Latin, shall be the basis of distribution."⁴ Realizing, however, the danger that might result to the Act as a whole from his insistence on the priority of the classics, the adroit diplomat had the better of the scrupulous clergyman, and he added archly: "But if any difficulty

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XIX, Chapter V.

²*Ibid.*, p. 33.

³*Ibid.*, p. 36.

⁴*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XIX, p. 31.

is likely to arise in getting the Latin and Greek clause of the Bill passed, it might be modified (or 'compromised') by saying: on 'the basis of average attendance of pupils in the programme prescribed according to law for grammar school studies'. . . . That great object had better not be jeopardized by legislation, as it may be accomplished by judicious regulations."¹

The members of the House were not the only ones adverse to the apportionment of the funds on the basis of attendance in classics alone. This basis for distributing the government grant was opposed also by the Teachers' Educational Association of Upper Canada at their fifth annual convention in 1865. A committee, to which the matter had been referred, brought in a report, presented in the form of a resolution, which ran thus: "That the funds should be apportioned among grammar schools, including the Royal Grammar School, or Upper Canada College, according to average attendance and efficiency of students in all the subjects contained on the grammar school programme, and not *in classics alone*. . . ."² The spokesmen of the teachers of Upper Canada did not share Ryerson's new-born and overpowering zeal for the languages of antiquity.

Meanwhile the superintendent of education had carried on an active propaganda for the classical curriculum, using extensively the columns of the *Journal of Education*, the official educational periodical, for this purpose. The April number of 1865 is replete with articles setting forth the claimed advantages of the study of classics. The articles are quoted approvingly from some of the leading periodicals of the day and deal with such topics as "Thoughts on the Use to be Made of

¹*Ibid.*, p. 32.

²*Journal of Education*, October, 1865, Vol. XVIII, No. 10, p. 150.

Greek and Latin in the Education of the Higher Classes", "Importance of Classical Studies", "Verdict in Favour of Classics in the English Schools", etc.

The new Act was passed in the House and received royal assent on September 18, 1865. In the matter of the distribution of the legislative grant the alternative proposed by Ryerson was adopted. The grant was to be payable "upon the basis of the daily average attendance . . . of pupils in the programme of studies prescribed according to law." The revised programme of studies and the regulations that were issued shortly after the passage of the new Act left no doubt as to the interpretation of the clause. Ryerson's was a master stroke; he had won by a strategic manoeuvre. The priority of the classics in the grammar schools of Upper Canada was assured, for the legislative grant was now to be used largely for the encouragement of the study of Greek and Latin by the boys in these schools.

Girls were not to undertake the study of classics nor were they to be recognized as grammar school pupils for the purpose of the grant. The grammar schools, it was maintained, were primarily intended for boys. An important concession was, however, made to girls desiring to pursue a course in French, who, if the trustees so chose, might be admitted to the schools for the purpose of taking up that study. The new regulations had this to say on the subject: "To afford every possible facility for learning French, girls may, at the option of the trustees, be admitted to any grammar school on passing the preliminary and final entrance examinations required for the admission of boys. Girls thus admitted will take French (and not Latin or Greek) and the English subjects of the classical course for boys; but they are not to be returned or recognized as pupils pursuing either of the

prescribed programmes of studies of the grammar schools."¹

The notion was widely current that girls were not adapted for learning classics and that the study of French was peculiarly suited to the feminine intellect. The old conception of French as a polite accomplishment still persisted. Latin was sternly disciplinary, French was ennobling by its grace and elegance. This view was held by the grammar school inspectors as well as by the Teachers' Educational Association. The latter carried the following resolution at the annual meeting in 1865, when the new regulations were under discussion:

"That the grammar schools as they are to be organized under the new regulations are not suited to the wants of the higher education of girls, and we therefore recommend that they be so modified as to render Greek and Latin optional studies with girls, after they have gone through the first and second forms, and that they continue to be considered grammar school pupils so long as they pursue the remaining subjects of the curriculum."²

George Paxton Young, inspector of grammar schools, was emphatic in his denunciation of the practice of inducing girls, in defiance of the new regulations, to take Greek and Latin. He was impatient with the schools that drove girls "into a line of study (Greek or Latin) for which they have no inclination, and on which it is commonly a mere waste of time for them to enter." He was convinced that "a non-classical course is the most suitable for the generality of girls."³ He advocated the study of the English branches and French by the female pupils in the grammar schools.

¹See Revised Programme of Studies of 1865 in the Annual Report for that year, p. 83.

²*Journal of Education*, October, 1865, Vol. XVIII, No. 10, p. 152.

³See Annual Report for 1867, pp. 39ff.

Inspector J. G. D. Mackenzie commended highly the benefits to be derived by girls from learning "a graceful and elegant language, which is so peculiarly a woman's study and accomplishment as French is." He looked to the French classics that were being studied in the schools for aid in counteracting the evil influences of the objectionable current periodicals read by young women. In his annual report for 1868, under the heading of French, he says:

"By far the greater proportion of those pupils who have taken up French are girls. It is gratifying to observe this growing taste amongst our girls for a graceful and elegant language, which is so peculiarly a woman's study and accomplishment as French is. It is to be hoped that such works as the "History of Charles XII" and Corneille's tragedy, "Horace", will come to the aid of a high and pure English literature in fortifying the minds of our young women against the many publications of the day which are calculated to turn the heads of young people and to destroy the charities and joys of the Christian home. I do not doubt that the French which is acquired at our grammar schools by the more advanced pupils will be turned to good account, though I cannot refrain from adding that it would be none the worse for greater attention to purity of accent."¹

In spite of the new regulations which threatened not to recognize girls learning Greek and Latin and despite the fairly widespread conviction of the unsuitableness of these studies for them, the enrolment of girls in the classical subjects, far from diminishing, was manifesting, what appeared to the educational authorities, appalling signs of growth. The trustees of the various schools where these conditions obtained were held accountable for this "new-born rage for Latin", as Inspector Young termed it. The purpose was obvious—to swell the ranks

¹Annual Report for 1868, p. 30. This paragraph is repeated in the Report for 1871, Part III, p. 4.

of the classical pupils and thereby increase the school's share of the grammar school fund. Not only was the study of Latin made obligatory on practically all the boys, but in most schools "though not legally" was "yet virtually, made imperative on girls also."¹

Ryerson complained repeatedly of this open breach of the grammar school regulations. By 1867 he considered the situation perplexing and well nigh alarming. In his Annual Report for that year² he deplores the perversion of the original intention of the regulations of 1865: "To meet an alleged exigency, provision was made in the programme to admit girls . . . to attend the grammar schools to learn French in connection with the prescribed English course of studies for classical pupils, but not to be returned as grammar school pupils, whose average attendance should constitute the basis of the distribution of the fund. This exceptional regulation in behalf of girls (it being alleged that in most cases they could not otherwise have an opportunity to learn French) assumed, of course, that they would not think of studying Greek or Latin (the studying of the one or the other being the test of a grammar school pupil in the classical course)." However, instead of confining themselves to the study of French and the English branches "scores of them were found professedly studying Latin", and were returned as grammar school pupils. Ryerson makes no attempt to conceal his indignation at this overt defiance of the regulations.

But the superintendent could not ignore the attendance of "this new and startling aggregation of girls returned as *classical* pupils" nor was he able to withstand the insistent demands for their recognition. Consequently, in

¹See Inspector's Report for 1866 and 1867 in the Annual Report for 1867.

²Annual Report for 1867, pp. 30ff.

the apportionment of the fund for 1867, he acceded to a compromise whereby only one-half of the girls studying Greek or Latin were to be taken into account; that is, for the purpose of the distribution of the grant *two girls* were to be regarded as equivalent to *one boy*. But this was only a temporary solution. To settle the matter permanently Ryerson submitted the question to the attorney general, who ruled that "the grammar school fund was intended for the classical, mathematical, and higher English education of boys" alone. The legislative grant was now accordingly distributed solely on the basis of the number of boys studying classics. The storm of protest that broke upon this decision, however, compelled Ryerson to yield before long and give full recognition to the female pupils. In the apportionment of the grammar school fund in 1870 the discrimination against them was completely removed. An account of the conflict between the advocates and the opponents of co-education and the higher education of women is beyond the scope of the present discussion. The conflict concerns us only in so far as it had a bearing on the comparative status of French and Latin in the grammar schools of the province.

It was inevitable that the new programme of studies and regulations, which set a pecuniary premium on the pursuit of classical languages, should react adversely on the study of French. The new regulations went into force in January, 1866. That year the enrolment in French, in proportion to the total attendance, had reached a higher point than had ever before been attained. 38 per cent. of all the grammar school pupils were learning French. After 1866, however, the percentage of attendance in French showed a disposition to fluctuate; there was a slight ebb and flow, corre-

sponding to the disqualification or recognition of girls as grammar school pupils. The enforcement of the new regulations was showing effects.

TABLE 10.—ENROLMENT IN FRENCH AND LATIN BETWEEN 1865 AND 1870

Year	Number of Grammar School Pupils			Per cent in French	Per cent. in Latin
	Total	in French	in Latin		
1865	5754	1733	3669	30.12	63.76
1866	5179	1974	4444	38.12	85.81
1867	5696	2164	5171	37.99	90.78
1868	5649	2007	4881	35.53	86.41
1869	6608	2416	5577	36.56	84.39
1870	7351	2850	6658	38.77	90.57

An examination of table 10 will reveal the effects of the new regulations. A falling off in attendance was the first result, since the requirements for admission were now made more stringent. The most noteworthy consequence of the new regulations was the decided impetus given to the study of Latin. The percentage of enrolment in this subject had been relatively constant between 1859 and 1864, constituting about 50 per cent. of the total attendance. In 1865 the registration in Latin jumped to about 64 per cent. of the total and two years later attained the unprecedented height of 91 per cent.¹ The slight decline in the next two years was the result of the disqualification of girls as classical pupils. When

¹There is good reason for suspecting that the figures furnished the education department with respect to the enrolment in classics were in some cases "inaccurate". At the annual meeting of the Upper Canada Teachers' Association in 1865 Inspector Young is reported to have said that "in examining some of the rolls a short time ago, he found a number of pupils returned as studying Latin and Greek, that his notes taken during the quarter, in the schoolroom, showed not to have been studying these branches at all. He corresponded with those teachers, and found that they had made a slight mistake—not intentional, of course." See *Journal of Education*, Vol. XVIII, p. 150.

the disability was removed the attendance in Latin rose once more to the high mark it had reached before.

After 1866, the year when the girls defied the regulations and flocked into the Latin classes, and 1870, when their rights to a grammar school education on a par with boys were finally conceded, the registration in French in proportion to the total attendance sometimes showed an inverse relation to the per cent. of enrolment in Latin, manifesting at times a slight tendency to decline as the percentage of attendance in Latin rose. Between 1864 and 1870 the number of pupils in Latin increased by 140 per cent., those in French by only 65 per cent.

The rivalry between Latin and the other older subjects of the curriculum, on the one hand, and French and the newer subjects, on the other hand, was only one manifestation of the ancient struggle, waged since times immemorial, between the old and the new, traditionalism and modernism, between practice sanctioned by usage and innovation untried in experience. A partial solution to the vexed problem was found in a new formula in 1871, of which an account will be given in a subsequent chapter. We must now revert to a discussion of the revised programme of studies, which was issued in 1865 and became effective the following year.

The new programme officially recognized two courses, the one designed for "classical pupils", the other for "pupils not intending to study Greek or Latin." Though in practice the latter course was virtually not followed in any of the schools,¹ its provisions are of some interest.

The non-classical course, which was of two years' duration, was devised for students aiming to become surveyors, or prepare for matriculation in civil engineer-

¹In 1867 there were only seven boys in the whole province taking the non-classical course.

ing, or those desiring to study "the higher English branches and French without taking Greek or Latin." French was prescribed for both years, and the amount was equivalent to that taken up in the three years of the classical course. The prescription for the first year was "French grammar and exercises, Voltaire's *Charles XII*, books I and II." In the second year the work in grammar was to be continued and the pupils were required to read the third book of *Charles XII* and act IV of Corneille's *Horace*.¹

The French programme of the classical course differed from that prescribed a decade earlier in being less specifically formulated. In the programme of 1855 the requirements in grammar had been set forth in detail, and precise limits were indicated for the work of each year. There had also been express mention of oral translation. The new programme neither defined the requirements in grammar nor did it make any explicit demands for oral work.² Manifestly a detailed outline of the work was no longer thought necessary, as it had been ten years earlier when French was a new subject. The superintendent's original intention of limiting the prescribed text-books to one for each subject³ was given effect in the new programme as regards French grammar. For this subject only De Fivas' *Grammaire des Grammaires* was now authorized.

The new programme increased both the amount and the duration of the work in French authors. Act IV of *Horace* was added to *Charles XII*, previously prescribed, and the course in authors was prolonged by a year,

¹See Annual Report for 1865, Part III, pp. 85ff.

²From the superintendent's statistical summaries it appears that some attention continued to be given in the schools, after the new programme became effective, to French dictation and conversation.

³See page 90 ante.

being begun in the fourth instead of the fifth or last year.

Aside from the few changes noted above the French programme of 1865 was not characterized by any marked innovations or any radical departure from the previous programme. The accompanying parallel tabulation of the two programmes will reveal the points of similarity and difference.

TABLE 11.—FRENCH PROGRAMMES OF 1855 AND 1866¹

Class	1855	1866
First	None	None
Second	None	None
Third	Elements of French Grammar to end of Irregular Verbs, with Exercises. Oral and Written Translations.	Grammar and Exercises (De Fivas)
Fourth	Rules on the use of the Pronouns and Participles, with Exercises. Oral and Written Translations.	Grammar and Exercises continued. Voltaire, <i>Histoire de Charles XII</i> , Bks. I, II, and III.
Fifth	Syntax and Idioms. Composition. Oral and Written Translations. Voltaire, <i>Histoire de Charles XII</i> (prescribed in 1857). Previous subjects reviewed.	Corneille, <i>Horace</i> , Act IV. Review of previous subjects.

CHAPTER VII

THE ADMISSION OF GERMAN

German was late in being admitted into the Ontario secondary school curriculum, and it has always held a relatively minor place in the schools. The study of German received official sanction in 1871, when it was

¹See Annual Report for 1854, p. 154, and the Report for 1865, Part III, p. 84. These programmes were prescribed in 1854 and 1865 respectively, but became operative in each case a year later.

for the first time included in the prescribed programme of studies. The beginnings of this subject were modest indeed, for, in the first year of its authorization, it was taught only in 16 of the 102 high schools in operation, and the total enrolment for the province was only 232.¹

Although it was not until 1871 that Ontario gave a recognized place to German in the secondary school programme, the study of this language in a number of schools antedated that year by at least three decades. It was studied in some isolated schools as early as the forties. Thus German was taught in Upper Canada College in 1842, and is reported to have been on the curriculum of "a noted private school . . . established in the town of Hamilton, in 1843, by the late very Reverend Dean Geddes, M.A., D.C.L., rector of Christ's Church there."² It was probably also taught in a private school opened in Toronto by a certain Miss Macnally in 1845 or 1846.³

That there were, in the forties, some students in the province desirous of learning German is further attested by the engagement of Jacob M. Hirschfelder as tutor in that language in King's College, a vocation that he combined with a tutorship in Hebrew. He first applied for the post of German teacher in 1843, when he was advised "that no offices for instruction in the modern languages have yet been instituted."⁴ In 1844 he was appointed tutor in Hebrew and two years later he is referred to in

¹Only two schools had comparatively large registrations in German in 1871, viz., the high schools of London and Galt, which had respectively 61 and 51 pupils in the subject. The schools in Berlin and Guelph had 24 German scholars each, and the Hamilton school had 20. Thus it is seen that there were in the remaining seven schools only 52 pupils in German.

²See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. V, p. 282.

³See Robertson's *Landmarks of Toronto*, Third Series, p. 33.

⁴From the minutes of King's College Council, quoted in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. IV, p. 296.

the minutes of King's College Council as "Tutor in Hebrew and German."¹ The position at the time carried with it no other remuneration than that derived from fees paid by the students. About the time of his appointment Mr. Hirschfelder published a manual in German, entitled "A Key to German Conversation" (Toronto, 1845). This was, as far as can be ascertained, the first German text-book to be published in the province.

In Upper Canada College, as has been noted, German was taught as early as 1842.² Mr. Hirschfelder was the first teacher of the language. It was taught as an extra subject and attracted only a small number of pupils. In 1857 the Rev. E. Schlüter was appointed "occasional German master" to be remunerated by the pupils whom he taught at the rate of one dollar per term for each, with an allowance of fifty pounds a year guaranteed by the senate. Ten years later he was made a regular member of the staff.³

No mention of German is to be found in any of the published grammar school reports before 1871, both because, as has already been pointed out, it was not prior to that date a recognized school subject and because of the negligible number of pupils engaged in the study. That German received some attention in a few grammar schools even before the teaching of it was formally sanctioned by legislative enactment and the new programme of studies is, however, evident from the inspectors' unpublished reports on the individual schools in their inspectorates.⁴

¹*Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 128.

²Young, *The Roll of Pupils of Upper Canada College*, p. 8 and p. 54. See also *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. VI, p. 134.

³*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XIII, pp. 114, 115 and 167.

⁴These unpublished special reports on the individual grammar schools are in the Department of Education, Toronto.

In his special report on the grammar school of Berlin (now Kitchener) in 1855 inspector William Ormiston says that there were five pupils in German, but he gives no further information on the subject. In 1859, according to the same inspector, there were three pupils learning German in the Windsor Grammar School. When the Rev. W. F. Checkley paid his inspectoral visit to the Berlin school in 1863, he found eight pupils studying Ollendorff's German grammar. The inspector explains the inclusion of German in the course of study of this school on ethnological grounds: "The population of Berlin and the neighbourhood being principally German, that language necessarily forms part of the course of study in the school. The trustees have engaged a special master for the purpose of teaching it."

In 1864 German was dropped from the curriculum of the Berlin Grammar School, but was put on again the following year, when there were nine pupils in the subject. In the Guelph Grammar School inspector G. P. Young found two boys studying German in 1865. He reports having heard them "read a few sentences in Heydenreich's *Elementary Reader*", and adds, "They promise pretty well." It appears that German was taught in only one other grammar school that year, namely, in the Beamsville school, which had only one boy in the subject.

In the inspectoral reports of 1866 the Galt Grammar School ("Tassie's School") alone is mentioned as giving instruction in German. The following year German was taught, in addition to Galt, also in the Prescott Grammar School, but the latter had only one lone German scholar.

The method of teaching German, in those days, was evidently of the severely grammatical type, in which the chief attention was given to parsing, declining and conjugating. In teaching authors the interest was purely

linguistic; it was centred in the grammatical structure and the translation into English rather than in the content of the matter read. Inspector Young complains of this complete indifference to the literary qualities of the selections studied. In his special report on the Galt Grammar School in 1868 he says:

"I heard Mr. Zimmermann's most advanced German class read the well-known poem, 'Kennst du das Land, u.s.w.' They translated pretty well; but I regretted that nothing had been done to awaken their minds, even though it had only been in passing, to an aesthetic appreciation of so beautiful a composition."

By 1868 German had acquired an important place in "Tassie's School", for there were now 30 pupils learning the language. No other grammar school appears to have taught German that year. In 1869 this language was taught also in the Brampton Grammar School, which had a German enrolment of eight.

In 1870, the year just prior to the authorization of the study of German in the secondary schools of Ontario, there were apparently only four such schools in whose curricula this language had a place (the high school inspector mentions no others), namely, the schools of Galt, Cobourg, Clinton, and Hamilton. But only the first of these had a relatively large number of pupils enrolled in German; in the remaining three schools the registration in this subject varied from four to ten. The combined German enrolment in these four schools was only 59, and of this number 38 were pupils of the Galt Grammar School.

As far as can be ascertained, of all the grammar schools in Ontario that of Galt alone has taught German without a break ever since the sixties. In other schools this language was prior to 1871 taught only sporadically, and

they had, all taken together, a mere handful of pupils in the subject. The grammar school of Galt and a few others, evidently by virtue of their situation in German settlements¹ formed, in a sense, the nucleus of the schools in which German was taught.

Such were the meagre beginnings of the teaching of German in the state-aided secondary schools of the province prior to the official sanction of that study in 1871. If we except the grammar school of Galt, German was negligible as a school subject. It was one of the most recent accessions to the curriculum and interest in the language was only just beginning to be manifested in the province.

Ontario was not unique in its tardy recognition of German as a school study. In both England and the United States this language lagged behind French in being admitted into the secondary school programme.

In England the French language had been taught for centuries by the private tutor and the governess before any need was felt for the study of German. Indeed a knowledge of this language was extremely rare in Great Britain down to the early decades of the nineteenth century, as was also an acquaintance with German achievements in literature and philosophy.

The study of German in England was stimulated, in a measure, by the writings of a number of English men of letters. Of these Sir Walter Scott was one of the earliest to be attracted by German literature, as he was also one of the first to make some specimens of it accessible, in translation, to the English reading public.² In 1796

¹For the ethnological distribution of the population of the province see Hunter, *The Ethnographical Elements of Ontario*, in the *Ontario Historical Society Papers and Records*, Vol. III, pp. 180 ff.

²The first German works to be translated into English were Gellert's *History of the Swedish Countess of G*— (1752) and Rabener's *Satirical*

appeared his translation of Bürger's *Leonore* and *Der wilde Jäger* and three years later that of Goethe's *Goetz von Berlichingen*. Scott's translations enabled the English reader to peer into a literature practically unknown at the time. The poet Coleridge came under the influence of German literature and thought during a year's stay in Germany, an influence which lasted for the rest of his life. His translation of Schiller's *Wallenstein* (1800) was one of the first results. He did much to familiarize his countrymen with German thought. Carlyle's susceptibility to German influence, which deeply coloured his works, is well known. He had a great share in arousing an interest in the study of the German language and literature among the English-speaking peoples.

The agitation for state-controlled, compulsory education in England was spurred on by German example,¹ which was repeatedly cited in support of free and compulsory popular education. There were these and other influences at work in Great Britain which tended to raise the dignity of the German language and give it a place in the secondary school curriculum. This place has, however, remained subsidiary to that of French. German came in as a second language and has since retained that position.

Letters (1757). These appear to have made no perceptible impression. The first translation from German that aroused a degree of interest in England was Gessner's *Death of Abel*, translated by Mrs. Collyer in 1763. The isolation of German literature early in the eighteenth century is well illustrated by the fact that apparently only one German literary work was reviewed in any of the English magazines of the period, viz., Brockes' *Irdisches Vergnügen in Gott* in the *Republic of Letters* for November, 1731. See Baker, "Some References to German Literature in English Magazines of the Early Eighteenth Century" in *Modern Language Notes* for April, 1909, Vol. XXIV, No. 4, pp. 111 ff.

¹Of the German states Prussia was the first one of importance to centralize education and make it universal, compulsory, and free.

In the United States the study of German in the secondary schools was not common before the seventies of the last century. There had been isolated instances of the introduction of that language in some early American schools. But these cases were exceptional. The colleges and universities led the way in the admission of German. The earliest of these were the University of Pennsylvania, William and Mary, and the University of Virginia. Harvard College began teaching German in 1825. Yale established courses in German in 1831, discontinued them the following year, but resumed instruction in the subject in 1834. A number of the early academies taught German, but the practice was rare before 1830. After the middle of the century, however, the study of the language made appreciable gains in the high schools and became fairly general after 1870.

It will be seen that in introducing German into the high schools in 1871 Ontario was following the lead of both the mother land and the neighbouring states. The new importance attached to the study of German everywhere was the natural consequence of the great prominence to which Germany had now risen both politically and in the realms of literature and philosophy. In regard to education, moreover, she was now in the lead of the world, and Ontario did not escape her dominating educational influence.

This influence was the more pronounced because Ryerson had personally come in contact with the German school system. In his educational tour before assuming his office as superintendent of education he had visited Germany (along with other countries) and had been potently impressed by the educational system of Prussia. His report of 1846 and the legislation based on it reveal the extent of his indebtedness to German examples. He

was indebted to Prussia for his conception of universal and compulsory popular education as well as teacher training. The whole gamut of elementary school studies advocated by Ryerson was borrowed from Prussia, whose methods of teaching these subjects he commended with unstinted praise. The types of schools which the report recommended for establishment in Upper Canada were to be analogous, in the main, to similar schools in Prussia. The common schools were to follow the pattern of the Prussian primary schools, the district model schools that of the German *Realschulen*, and the grammar schools were to be fashioned after the Prussian higher burgher schools and gymnasiums.¹

Ryerson always manifested a sympathetic attitude to schools situated in German settlements in the province, attended and staffed by German pupils and teachers. When the school superintendent of the District of Wellington complained to Ryerson in 1846 that the schools in the townships of Waterloo, Woolwich, Wilmot, and Wellesley were taught, for the most part, by German masters who were aliens and who consequently could not, according to the school act, be licensed as teachers, Ryerson wrote in reply that the act was not aimed against them and proposed to have legislation introduced to redress the injustice: "I do not imagine that there will be any difficulty in obtaining the modification of the law so as to meet the case of the teachers and inhabitants mentioned by you."² Licenses to German teachers were accordingly granted ungrudgingly. It was in these German districts, as we have seen, that the study of German was early introduced into the grammar schools.

Ryerson always retained a deep admiration for the

¹See Ryerson's report quoted in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. VI, pp. 140-211.

²See letters in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. VI, p. 293.

Prussian school system. In 1870 he wrote: "Every enlightened country in Europe is at this moment disposed to learn lessons of educational wisdom from Prussia. England has not failed within the last year or two to profit largely by her experience." In support of his praise of Prussian educational practices, he quotes the following from the "Estimate of the Prussian System of Schools" by Her Majesty's Commissioners (1868): "When we view it as a whole, the Prussian system appears to be at once the most complete and the most perfectly adapted to its people of all that now exist. It is not wanting in the highest cultivation like the American, nor in dealing with the mass of the middle classes," etc.¹

The establishment of a chair in modern languages in University College in 1853 and the institution of lectures in German (along with other modern languages) undoubtedly helped to stimulate an interest in the German language. Professor Forneri, the first incumbent of the chair, was the author of a German grammar and came to University College highly recommended as a teacher of languages, including German. At least three other members of the faculty at the time were thoroughly conversant with that language. One of them was a native, Jacob M. Hirschfelder, referred to before as lecturer in oriental languages, and the other two were Englishmen—Professors Croft and Chapman. Henry Holmes Croft, professor of chemistry and experimental philosophy, had studied at the University of Berlin, and Professor Edward Chapman, who was at the head of the department of mineralogy and geology, had received his Ph.D. degree from Göttingen University.

The admission of German into the university curriculum inevitably led to the subject being placed on the

¹Annual Report for 1870, pp. 21 f.

matriculation examination. That there was a senior matriculation examination in German set by the University of Toronto in the sixties is evident from the following minute of October 21, 1864, in the proceedings of the Senate: "Mr. G. R. R. Cockburn moved . . . that in the senior matriculation Aue's German Grammar be substituted for Forneri's. (Carried)."¹ It is certain, however, that there were but few candidates for this examination, since the opportunities for the study of German in the secondary schools of Upper Canada at the time were, as we have seen, extremely meagre.

The institution of lectures in German in University College and the consequent inauguration of a matriculation examination in this subject led the way to the introduction of German into the secondary schools.

This was rendered possible by the growing number of teachers of German available in the province. After the second decade of the century numerous immigrants from Germany came to Upper Canada, settling for the most part in districts inhabited by Germans of Pennsylvanian origin.² Among these settlers there were educated men who were qualified to give instruction in their native tongue. Such German teachers became more numerous as immigration from Germany increased.³ We have it on the authority of the Ontario Grammar School Masters' Association that by the sixties there was "certainly in Canada no . . . lack of . . . highly cultivated Frenchmen and Germans."⁴ In addition to the native teachers there were now becoming available in the province also

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 151.

²See fifth Annual Report of the Waterloo Historical Society, pp. 24 ff. and the fourteenth Annual Report, pp. 220 ff.

³According to the census of 1871 there were in Ontario that year 22,827 natives of Germany.

⁴*The Upper Canada College Question*, p. 37.

some graduates of old country and Ontario universities who were capable of giving instruction in the German language.

To resume, then, there were several influences at work that led to the recognition of German as a grammar school study in Ontario and to its admission into the programme of studies in 1871. Chief among these was the eminence that Germany had now attained in politics, industry, science, letters, philosophy and education. Europe and America were becoming increasingly indebted to her for her contributions in these several spheres, and the natural consequence was a growing attention to the study of German in both secondary schools and colleges. The admission of German into the high school curriculum of Ontario was stimulated more particularly by the example of the secondary schools in England and the United States. This study appears to have been viewed sympathetically by Ryerson who had a warm admiration for German educational practices, an admiration that had its origin in his educational tour of Germany in the forties. Moreover, the establishment of courses in German in University College emphasized the need for a preparatory course in the subject in the secondary schools. The introduction of such a course was facilitated, in a measure, by the existence in the grammar schools of the province, and more especially in the German districts, of at least a nucleus of students in the language, and by the increasing availability of German teachers.

CHAPTER VIII

IN THE CLASS-ROOM (1854-1870)

The present chapter purposes to give an account of the state and progress of the teaching of French with

respect to details of classroom procedure in the grammar schools of the province during the second half of the sixth and the whole of the seventh decade of the last century. It will therefore deal with such matters as the character of modern language classes, teachers and their qualifications, the attainments of pupils, the characteristics of text-books in use, methods of instruction, and other similar questions relating to the topic under discussion.¹

The account here given is based to a large extent on data furnished by the confidential reports—hitherto unpublished—made by the grammar school inspectors on the individual schools in their inspectorates.² These data are, however, often incomplete and not infrequently at variance one with the other. The lack of consistency is natural enough when it is remembered that there were during the period in question seven different grammar school inspectors whose training and views were often widely diverse.

Their unequal linguistic equipment was, more particularly, the cause of considerable disparity in their standards and judgments. The guarded manner in which the early inspectors reported on the pronunciation of French in the schools and their silence about that of German make it difficult to suppress the suspicion that their own pronunciation of the former was uncertain and that they knew nothing about the latter. The last two inspectors of the period, on the other hand, were quite competent to pass judgment on oral French. The Reverend George Paxton Young was an accomplished French scholar and was manifestly also at home in

¹For an account of the teaching of German during the period under review see the preceding chapter.

²These reports are in the Department of Education, Toronto.

German, and his successor, the Reverend J. G. D. Mackenzie, was proficient in the French language and seems to have been particularly strong on the oral side. He must for this reason have been an unwelcome visitor in many of the French classes.

These were usually small in size during the sixth and seventh decades, and especially during the former. Classes of two, three, or four students were common. Nor had individual teaching been completely abandoned. This is evident from the instructions issued to the inspectors ordering them to report whether the method of teaching was "simultaneous, or individual, or mixed . . ., if simultaneous, that is by classes, in what subjects of instruction; whether the simultaneous method is not more or less mingled with individual teaching. . . ." Individual instruction as a recognized method was, nevertheless, rare even at the beginning of the period, and tended more and more to give way to instruction by classes. The forms were, however, frequently poorly graded. In 1857 the grammar school inspector for the western section of Upper Canada complained that "There still exists a very large diversity and irregularity in the organization and classification of the schools . . ., arising from the mixed character and attainments of the pupils and the frequent changes that take place."¹ The unequal attainments of the members of the class added greatly to the difficulties of teaching and made work in the classroom irksome alike to master and scholar.

There were other factors, too, that tended to make the work unpleasant. Among these may be mentioned the *externa* of the school and the text-books in current use. The classroom was usually an uninviting place, even when measured by the standards of the time; it was

¹Annual Report for 1857, p. 208.

cheerless and bleak and oppressive. So was also the external appearance of the schoolhouse. "Even in the neatest premises," the inspector wrote in 1855, "I saw no attempt at ornament: not a tree, shrub, or flower to awaken or cultivate a taste so simple and natural, and so easily gratified in rural districts," and the worst of these schoolhouses "could scarcely be considered habitable."¹ Many of them were "dirty, dilapidated, and forbidding," with similar classrooms, whose desks were "whittled, besmeared, and strangely carved."² The decrepit state of the one-time celebrated Cornwall Grammar School was apparently characteristic of many other schools of those days. It is described in one of the confidential reports for 1856 as "an old, dingy, dirty, frame building—badly furnished and ill-swept." There were, of course, a number of schools of seemly appearance, properly furnished and neatly kept, and the proportion of these increased as time went on. That improvement in the condition of the schoolhouses and classrooms was, however, by no means either rapid or general is evident from the following comment of the inspector in 1870: "Some of our high school buildings are . . . so absurdly out of keeping with the appellation 'High School', that, in my judgment, they should be tolerated not one moment longer than the time that may be required for the erection of better."³

If the classrooms were uninviting the French class-books were not less so. The French grammar, in particular, was a dull and lifeless book, with nothing to relieve its drab monotony. It was packed full of rules and exceptions, bewildering in their completeness. The

¹Annual Report for 1855, p. 291.

²Annual Report for 1857, pp. 207 *f.*

³Annual Report for 1870, Part III, p. 4.

format of the earlier books especially was as unattractive as were their contents; they were usually 16mo or 18mo in size with the grammatical rules printed in seven point type and the paradigms as well as the French words in the interlinear exercises in still minuter "pearl" type. In accordance with the traditional plan, these grammars were divided into two parts, dealing respectively with *accidence* and *syntax*. They contained full treatments of each of the parts of speech arranged in the conventional sequence. There were no French vocabularies given in connection with the lessons. These were supplied interlinearly in the exercises to be done into French. The interlinear French words were not selected for their utility but were given purely at random, being intended merely to exemplify certain grammatical rules in the haphazard, jumbled sentences that lacked both rhyme and reason. The following are a few typical examples: "The engagement was warm. That is an original thought. This cloth is best of all. They are delusive promises. He seduces by his fawning manners. The delightful valley of Tempe is in Thessaly. She is deaf and dumb."

Although the grammars used later in the period—De Fivas', Ollendorff's and Fasquelle's—represented in many ways a decided advance over the earlier ones, they were not free from many of the characteristic faults that marred the text-books that preceded them. A discerning criticism of Ollendorff's book was made by the grammar school inspector as early as 1860, when he described it as a "method from which no mental training can be derived, as it consists of broken sentences without any logical connection."¹

¹Inspector Ambery in his special report on the Ottawa Grammar School.

Among the books most widely used in teaching French authors were Voltaire's *Charles XII* and Corneille's *Horace*. Following the established practice in Greek and Latin, the learner was usually put directly into the French classics without any preliminary study of simpler texts. But the French classics were, of course, not read primarily for their literary qualities. They served rather as material for drill in French declensions and conjugations and for the analysis of grammatical subtleties, in accordance with the methods employed by the language masters of the time.

The qualifications of the masters in those days were markedly varied and of differing degrees of merit. They were an extremely heterogeneous body, due to their diversity of origin and training. Of the sixty-four grammar school masters in 1854 nineteen were graduates of the four provincial universities; seven held degrees from an Irish university; seven from three different Scottish universities; four were graduates of as many American colleges; and one was a graduate of an English university. In addition to these there were twenty-six masters who held no degrees. Of these eight had certificates from the committee of examiners, fourteen had been appointed before the new law became effective, which required that masters be either graduates or hold provincial certificates, and four others had no qualifications of any kind. Although the proportion of grammar school masters who were graduates of the provincial universities kept on increasing, there were still, in 1861, out of fifty-seven masters with university degrees, twenty-one who had received their training in twelve different foreign universities of five different countries. It is not surprising then that there was wide diversity in

the schools both in the methods of instruction and in the degree of proficiency of the teachers.

The regular masters were not always qualified to teach French, and a number of the schools employed teachers whose native tongue was French as part-time instructors in the language.¹ Some schools—as, for example, the Ottawa Grammar School in 1861—still commanded an extra fee for such instruction. This practice was, however, rare, and did not obtain in schools where the regular teachers gave instruction in the French language. Such teachers were becoming increasingly numerous.

Some of these teachers, too, showed considerable skill in handling the subject, and succeeded in imparting a fair knowledge of it to their pupils, as the following excerpts, selected from the inspectors' special reports of various years, will show:

Niagara, 1855: "French taught very well. . . . The mode of teaching, conversational and interesting—active, earnest, and prompt."

London, 1858: "Class in French read a chapter of *Charles XII*—pronounced well."

Barrie, 1859: "A class in French read and translated very well."

Lindsay, 1863: "In French also they pronounced, translated, and parsed very fairly."

Galt, 1864: "The French classes under Miss Crawford

¹The following are some of the grammar schools that employed native French teachers, with the years in which they were employed. In some cases the names of the teachers have been recorded by the inspectors and are reproduced here: Hamilton, 1857; Cornwall, 1859 (in 1860 "a French lady" taught French in this school); Ottawa, 1861; Toronto, 1861—Emile Coulon (see pages 83 and 186); Hamilton, 1864—M. Lafont; Ottawa, 1865—M. Dorion; L'Original, 1867—M. Marsil; St. Catharines, 1867—M. Sagnieur; Toronto, 1869—M. Paradis; Ottawa, 1870—M. Barthelot, etc.

are all that can be desired. She both knows her subject well and can teach it."¹

Cornwall, 1864: "With French I was very much pleased. Mr. Eveleth knows his subject well and has a fair capacity for teaching it."

Prescott, 1867: "She (Miss Hatton) has charge of the female department, and teaches French, German, and some of the English classes. . . . She is an excellent French teacher."

Gananouque, 1868: "As to the French, Mr. Bradbury (M.A., Trinity College) is the best teacher of that language I have yet met with in our grammar schools, and his class in *Horace* (4 girls) did him great credit. He pays special attention to pronunciation, which is so generally neglected. This purity of accent is quite remarkable in one not accustomed to converse in the language."

The majority of the teachers of French in the grammar schools of Upper Canada were, however, by no means as proficient as those referred to in the above quotations. In many cases they had but an imperfect knowledge of the language in general and were lamentably ignorant of its pronunciation.

We get an idea of the crudity of their pronunciation from the reports of the grammar school inspectors in the late sixties. The earlier inspectors have left little on record with regard to the proficiency or deficiency of the teachers in oral French. These inspectors were apparently indulgent with the defective French pronunciation heard in the classrooms, probably because, as was suggested above, their own knowledge of it was imperfect. The later inspectors, on the other hand, frequently found fault with the way in which French was pronounced in the schools, as also generally with the teachers' inadequate linguistic training, their methods of

¹A small number of the modern language teachers during this period were women.

instruction and the unsatisfactory results shown by pupils in their charge.

But no other inspector of the latter period was so impatient with inferior performance in French, particularly if it included faulty pronunciation, as was the Rev. J. G. D. Mackenzie in the late sixties. He never tired of complaining of the lack of "purity of accent" in both masters and scholars. This complaint was the recurring refrain of his reports. He was zealous for the purity of French pronunciation in the schools and critical of offences against it. He was as loud in his praise of both teachers and pupils who pronounced the language creditably as he was trenchant in his censure of those who pronounced it badly. The following are a few of his characteristic comments on the teaching of French:

Barrie, 1868: "In French a portion of *Charles XII* was selected. Translation and pronunciation respectable, though as to the latter particularly, admitting of improvement. . . ."

St. Thomas, 1868: "Her [pupil's] French too was exceedingly good, in which she could lay claim to the rare merit of correct pronunciation. Mr. M. [the Rev. John McClare, headmaster] himself has a pure accent, understands its value and takes pains to communicate it to pupils."

Kincardine, 1869: "I was pleased with a class in French grammar, though mere beginners. What they had learnt had been well taught and (rare excellence!) their accent on the whole was good."

Pictou, 1869: "French was very poor, accent bad and translation lame and inaccurate. The master himself was by no means at home in this subject."

Inspector Mackenzie's immediate predecessor, George Paxton Young, apparently held a more charitable view of the character of modern language teaching in the schools and declared it to be creditable for the most part, though he did not hesitate to call attention to short-

comings where these existed, as a few excerpts from his special reports will attest:

Carleton Place, 1864: "The French was pretty good; pronunciation rather defective."

Port Rowan, 1864: "The French pronunciation of the pupils, like that of the master, is utterly bad."

Strathroy, 1865: "None of the pupils, except the most advanced, knew more than a few tenses of the verbs; and even the two most advanced were unable to go quite through verbs of the first conjugation."

Young sometimes complained of the exclusive emphasis on the linguistic elements in modern language teaching and the total indifference to the literary aspect of the study (see page 121). The all-absorbing concern was with grammar—accidence and syntax—to which even the reading of the classical authors was subordinated. These works were, in fact, as we have seen, largely used as material for grammatical drill and analysis in much the same way as the Greek and Latin authors were used.

The requirements in French in so far as they were centrally prescribed were, as regards aims and methods, identical with the requirements in the classical languages. Indeed in the early instructions to the inspectors, in which they were directed to inquire into the pupils' attainments in the languages, Greek, Latin, and French were grouped together. The inspectors were ordered to report whether the pupils were "well grounded in an accurate knowledge of their [*i.e.*, Greek, Latin, and French] grammatical forms and principles; their proper pronunciation, peculiar structures and idioms, and whether taught by oral and written exercises and compositions in these languages, as well as by accurate and free translation of the standard authors."¹

¹Quoted by Hodgins in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XI, p. 203.

Such were the aspects of language teaching that the inspectors were required to observe and report on. Aims and methods in foreign language teaching similar to those indicated in the instructions just quoted had been formulated by Ryerson in 1854, when he wrote:

The foundations of sound scholarship in *foreign languages* can only be laid in an accurate knowledge of their proper pronunciation, and a clear perception of their differences of structure and idiom from the English and from each other—objects which cannot be accomplished without the practice of oral and written exercises and composition in the language taught, as well as of accurate and free translation of standard authors.¹

But these are to be regarded rather as ideal aims, for they were but rarely realized by the methods actually employed in the classrooms. Here learning by rote flourished. Nor was this style of teaching confined to the languages. Hence the grammar school inspectors asserted that much of the instruction in the schools was “by no means intellectual—too much dependence being placed on text-books and the recitation of lessons committed to memory”. They complained that “the memory is cultivated at the expense of judgment, and the pupils are required to repeat rather than reason, to quote rules and cite formularies rather than to explain and investigate them.” Although the inspectors were able to report “several noble exceptions” to this mode of teaching, instruction in the languages was predominantly of the type described.

It was the heyday of formal grammar. The methods employed in teaching French had been taken over ready-made from Latin, and although there was considerable diversity among the teachers in respect to details of class-

¹Annual Report for 1854, p. 163.

room procedure, the study of French was largely a matter of memorizing paradigms, rules, and exceptions, and reciting these to the master. In French "composition" the aim was primarily to emphasize the rules studied rather than to furnish the learner with a working vocabulary of the foreign language or a serviceable knowledge of its grammatical structure. The study of the language was, as a rule, not vitalized, for there was no attempt to acquaint the pupil with the life or civilization of the people whose language was being studied.

Inspector Robertson describes a French lesson witnessed in 1855. The text-book used was Ollendorff's. The class consisted of "four males and three females". In the inspector's words:

In French they were saying off parts of verbs and short sentences [apparently the illustrative sentences in Ollendorff which had been memorized]. They made a tolerable attempt at the exercises in Ollendorff, turning English into French.

The following description by Inspector Ormiston of a French lesson taught in 1857 shows the predominant importance attached to formal grammar:

The master dictated a sentence in *English, French or Latin*, which each pupil was required to write upon a slate. This was first examined and then each word was parsed. The class were only in the rudiments. . . .

That parsing was accepted as a standard and desirable device in modern language teaching is evident from the following complaint by Inspector Young of the insufficient attention paid to this phase of French instruction in the Berlin Grammar School in 1864:

A French class was examined in *Charles XII*. The translation was very good; parsing had not been sufficiently attended to.

A similar complaint was made by Inspector Mackenzie

in 1870 with reference to a French class in the Simcoe Grammar School:

A class in De Fivas' *Elementary Reader* were good as to translation; but poor as to parsing.

A distinctive method for teaching modern languages had not yet been evolved. Here and there the voice of the missionary might have been heard, but it was the voice of him that crieth in the wilderness. The teacher whose mode of teaching French in 1855 was "conversational and interesting, active, earnest, and prompt" (see page 134) had no disciples, and did not transmit his method to his successors. They, like his contemporaries, were content with pursuing the tried methods, the methods that had been found adequate in teaching the languages of Greece and Rome.

CHAPTER IX

THE FORMULA OF 1871 (1871-1875)

The Act of 1865 proved to be the cause of more evils than it had sought to remedy. The two most baneful consequences of the Act and the revised regulations based on it were the increasing tendency to form "union schools" (*i.e.*, the union of common and grammar schools) and the all too prevalent sham study of Latin.

The practice of amalgamating common and grammar schools was as disastrous for elementary as for secondary education. On the one hand, the common school department of the union school was being depleted of all the pupils that could possibly be recruited into the grammar school section and was therefore compelled to give up teaching all but the most elementary subjects; and, on

the other hand, the grammar school, receiving ill-equipped and immature pupils, was under the necessity of doing work properly belonging to the elementary school. The desire on the part of the trustees of such amalgamated schools to crowd elementary school pupils into the secondary school department was natural enough, since thereby the legislative grant per pupil was enormously increased. Grammar school inspector George Paxton Young complained bitterly in 1867 of "the tendency . . . for all the pupils, male or female, except those who are in the merest elements of English, to be sucked into the vortex of the grammar school department." "Every child in the common school department," he says, "boy or girl, who is supposed to have any chance of wriggling through the meshes of the inspector's examining net, is transferred to the grammar school, and enrolled as a classical pupil."¹

By making the study of Latin the distinguishing characteristic of grammar school pupils the regulations of 1866 had virtually made this subject obligatory on all. It was in practice the *sine qua non* of a share in the legislative grant, with the result that the enrolment in this subject, as was noted in a previous chapter, soon reached the staggering proportion of 90 per cent. of the whole attendance—to the serious detriment of the other subjects of the curriculum, especially English literature, science, and modern languages. These were largely neglected; they had to be sacrificed to the classics. Nor were the great majority of the pupils who were learning Greek and Latin adequately equipped to undertake such study. Indeed their time would have been better spent in the classrooms of the elementary schools.

The regulations had not been long in force before Ryerson became aware of their baneful effects. Forgetful

¹See Annual Report for 1867, p. 41.

apparently of his own share in bringing about the situation, he now cried out against the evils resulting from the operation of the regulations, denouncing especially the prevailing tendency of crowding immature pupils into the grammar schools: "In practice it had been found that, in the anxiety of trustees and masters of a majority of our grammar schools, to crowd children into the grammar schools, in the fallacious hope thereby to increase the grant to their schools, they had virtually merged the grammar into the common school, with the nominal addition in most cases of only a little Latin and Greek."¹

Most often, then, the study of the classics was only "nominal." Inspector Young characterized it as "a show of classical study where reality is wanting,"² and protested vigorously "against the practice of obliging multitudes of boys and girls to learn Latin, who, as far as any special benefit which they are to derive from that language is concerned, might as well be set to learn Chinese." He did not underrate the value of classical learning, but he regarded it as unsuited to "multitudes of children who have no object in prosecuting a classical course of study and whose circumstances and views in life render it perfectly certain that they will never become classical scholars in any proper sense of the expression."³ The most harrowing thing about it all, in the opinion of the inspector, was the fact that so many of the classical pupils were girls!

Young urged a change in the secondary school system. He called for a new type of school to replace the traditional grammar school, one truly adapted to the needs of the times and the people. The blind worship of the classics

¹See Annual Report for 1870, p. 64.

²See Inspector's report for 1867 in Annual Report for that year, p. 43.

³See Annual Report for 1867, p. 50.

was to make way for the study of what he regarded as the most essential branches, the English language and literature and physical science, as well as history, mathematics, and French. The classics were to be reserved for those who contemplated pursuing the study beyond the limits of the secondary school so as to acquire some familiarity with Latin or Greek literature. The bulk of the grammar school pupils were to follow a non-classical curriculum. For the realization of these newer aims in secondary education Young advocated the establishment of "English High Schools" into which no pupils were to be admitted who had not first obtained a thorough elementary education.

Ryerson, late doughty champion of the classics, now joined in the crusade against compulsory Greek or Latin. To remedy the defects of the Act in force he drafted a new school bill in 1868, in which he incorporated some of the most important reforms proposed by Young, including the abolition of compulsory Latin and the giving of adequate attention to the "higher branches of an English education." The designation of the grammar schools, too, as suggested by Young, was to be changed to "high schools."¹ The purpose of these schools was set forth in the proposed bill in the following terms:

The grammar schools shall be designated and known as high schools, in which provision shall be made for teaching the higher branches of an English education, and the Latin and Greek languages, to those pupils whose parents, or guardians, may desire it, according to a programme of studies and regulations which shall be prescribed from time to time by the Council of Public Instruction, with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.²

¹Young refers to the name "English High Schools" as "a designation which I borrow from the United States, although unfortunately I have only a very vague idea of what the high schools in the United States are."

²See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XX, p. 293.

The bill as drafted by Ryerson made no special provision for the teaching of either commercial subjects or modern languages. This omission the Ontario Teachers' Association criticized, contending that "there is an acknowledged necessity for providing, in high schools, for teaching not only the higher branches of an English, but of a commercial education, as well as for teaching such of the modern languages as the Council of Public Instruction may determine." Accordingly they proposed that the clause defining the purpose of the high schools should be amended to read:

The grammar schools shall be designated and known as high schools, in which provision shall be made for teaching the higher branches of an English and commercial education and the modern languages and the Latin and Greek languages, to those pupils whose parents or guardians may desire it, etc.¹

The bill was discussed with much animation both by the press and in the Legislature. Among those who assailed its provisions most vigorously was Edward Blake, at the time leader of the Liberal opposition in the provincial House. He was apprehensive of the neglect of the classics, which the new Act would occasion. Though alive to the advantages of the study of modern languages and science, he was, however, resolved to oppose what he termed the "blotting out of the classics" and the severance of the grammar schools from the university. Discussing the course of study as proposed in the bill, he said:

I now turn to that portion of the bill which refers to the subjects of instruction in the grammar schools. I am a thorough advocate of the modern doctrine of superior education. I am strongly impressed with the conviction that we ought to devote a great deal of attention to the

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXII, p. 26.

modern languages, and to those various departments of learning which, in this busy, bustling age, have assumed such immense importance in the world. Mechanics, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, and kindred subjects, have assumed a practical importance which fifty years ago was not dreamed of. But I am by no means an advocate for blotting out the classics. I do not believe that the learning of the classics is any more essential to a certain degree of success in what are called the learned professions than it is to the production of what may be called a really educated class of men in the country. While I strongly advocate the encouragement of the study of these other branches, I believe that the study of the classics ought not to be discouraged. Well, what is proposed to be done? It is proposed, in effect, to dissociate the grammar schools from the university. . . . At present the grammar schools, according to the act of Parliament, must use such a curriculum as will fit students for matriculation at the university, and are, in fact, nurseries to that crown and glory of our educational institutions. If the university is not doing its duty, if it is not fully up to the requirements of the times, if its course of instruction is not sufficiently large, it is under the control of the House, and we can make it do its duty, without disturbing the order and harmony of our educational system. The tendency of the present proposal is to sever the grammar schools from the university, and make them no longer the means by which the flower of our youth reach the university.¹

Despite the opposition from many quarters the bill, with only slight emendations, was finally passed in 1871.

The Act of 1871 marked an era in the educational history of Ontario. It changed the complexion of both elementary and secondary schools. The elementary schools, which were now to be designated as "public" schools, were made free, and education became compulsory on all children of school age. In respect of secondary education one of the objects of the new school

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXII, p. 233.

law was to differentiate it more sharply than had been done hitherto from elementary education, first, by excluding immature pupils from the high schools, and secondly, by checking the tendency to form union schools. To attain the first object no pupils were now to be admitted into the high schools until they should have acquired such proficiency in the public school subjects as to enable them to pass an entrance examination specified by the Act; and to discourage secondary schools from seeking amalgamation with elementary schools for the purpose of securing support from local assessment, to which the latter alone had been entitled, the Act stipulated that the high schools were to be provided for by local rate on a par with the public schools.

The Act of 1871 has a special bearing on the history of modern language instruction in the province, inasmuch as in this Act modern languages were for the first time specified as secondary school studies and inasmuch as it contained, as was shown in a previous chapter, the first official authorization of the study of German. In the earlier acts Latin and Greek alone of the foreign languages had been specifically mentioned; French had been prescribed only in the programme issued by the Council of Public Instruction, and the study of German had not received official sanction of any kind.

Ryerson's original draft of the school bill, it will be remembered, in defining the scope of the high school course, had singled out only the higher English branches and the optional study of the classics, but was silent about modern languages. Due, no doubt, to the insistence of such bodies as the Ontario Teachers' Association, the influence of educational practices in other countries, and the increasing recognition of the value of the study of modern languages, a concession was made

in the Act to French and German. The concession was, however, in a sense, a grudging one, in that the Council of Public Instruction was empowered to exempt any high schools from teaching French and German if unable, for pecuniary reasons, to engage special teachers for these languages. The Act set forth the high school course of study in the following terms:

The grammar schools shall be designated and known as high schools in which provision shall be made for teaching to both male and female pupils the higher branches of an English and commercial education, including the natural sciences, with special reference to agriculture, and, also, the Latin, Greek, French and German languages, to those pupils whose parents, or guardians, may desire it, according to a programme of studies and regulations, which shall be prescribed from time to time by the Council of Public Instruction, with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council; and the Council of Public Instruction shall have power to exempt any high school, which shall not have sufficient funds to provide the necessary qualified teachers, from the obligation to teach the German and French languages.¹

The typical Ontario secondary school was henceforth to be a co-educational school in which the classics, at least by statutory enactment, were to be deprived of their vested rights, and the emphasis shifted to the so-called higher English branches. Lest the study of Greek and Latin fall into decay, provision was made in the Act for a special type of boys' classical schools, to be termed "Collegiate Institutes". These were required to have a minimal daily average attendance of sixty boys in Greek or Latin and a staff of at least four masters. However, as will be shown in a subsequent chapter, the study of these languages and the exclusive ad-

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXII, p. 219.

mission of male pupils as the distinguishing features of collegiate institutes had to be abandoned after a time.

The classical monopoly was being shaken. A sudden decline in the Latin enrolment was one of the immediate effects of the new Act. The pecuniary inducements having been removed, there was no further motive for herding all the little boys and girls pell-mell into the classical courses, with the result that the registration in Latin fell in two years from 90 per cent. to 48 per cent. of the total attendance. The fall was as precipitous as had been the rise five years earlier, and both were equally due to changes in the regulations. Table 12 and figure 6 reveal the extent to which the Act of 1871 affected the Latin enrolment:

TABLE 12.—RISE AND FALL IN LATIN ENROLMENT BETWEEN 1864 AND 1875

Year	Enrolment		Per Cent. in Latin
	Total	in Latin	
1864	5589	2825	50.55
1865	5754	3669	63.76
1866	5179	4444	85.81
1867	5696	5171	90.78
1868	5649	4881	86.41
1869	6608	5577	84.39
1870	7351	6658	90.57
1871	7490	5059	67.54
1872	7986	3860	48.33
1873	8437	4077	48.32
1874	7871	3942	50.08
1875	8342	3864	46.32

After the passage of the school law of 1871 the Council of Public Instruction framed a new course of study for the high schools, to conform with the provisions of the Act. The new programme,¹ which became effective in 1872, defined the aim of these schools as two-fold: first, to give a good English education so as to qualify

¹See *Journal of Education*, 1871, Vol. XXV, No. 8.

pupils for pursuits in commerce, industry, agriculture, and the public service, and secondly, "to teach the languages of Greece and Rome, of Germany and France, the mathematics", and other subjects, with an eye to preparing

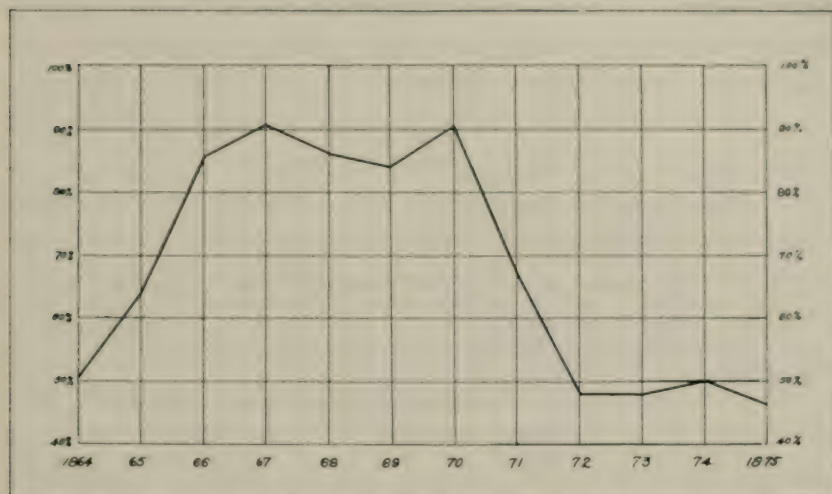


Fig. 6.—RISE AND FALL IN LATIN ENROLMENT BETWEEN 1864 AND 1875

pupils for the learned professions and for admission into the university. To correspond to this dual purpose of the high school two courses were prescribed, an "English Course" and a "Classical Course with French and German". The first course did not include the languages; the latter made the classics obligatory, but French and German only optional.

Thus it is seen that although the study of Greek or Latin had ceased to be a condition for a share in the legislative grant, these languages were not completely dethroned. They retained their position of priority over modern languages. However, by giving French and German a prominent place in the curriculum, the Act of 1871 called attention to their importance and thus led the way to their rise, five years later, to a status of

curricular equality with the languages of Greece and Rome in the Ontario high school programme.¹

In the "Classical Course with French and German", as prescribed by the new regulations, modern languages were begun in the second instead of the third year, as hitherto. But, since the high school course was now shortened by one year—there were to be only four forms—the duration of the course in modern languages was not affected.

Table 13 gives the French and German prescription of the "Classical Course".

TABLE 13—PROGRAMME IN FRENCH AND GERMAN IN THE "CLASSICAL COURSE":

Subject	First Form	Second Form	Third Form	Fourth Form
FRENCH	Pujol, part I; or De Fivas' Grammar with Exercises.	Pujol, part II, with selections from part IV or De Fivas' Grammar and Exercises, with Collet's Conversations and De Fivas' Elementary Reader.	Pujol, part III, with selections from part IV, or De Fivas' Grammar and Exercises, with Conversations; Voltaire, <i>Histoire de Charles XII</i> , chapters VI, VII, VIII; Corneille, <i>Horace</i> , Acts I, II.
GERMAN	Grammar (Ahn).	Grammar (Ahn) Adler's Reader.	Goethe, <i>Hermann und Dorothea</i> , canto II.

It will be seen that the first year of the French course was to be devoted entirely to learning the rudiments of grammar. Two text-books were authorized for this subject—De Fivas' and Pujol's. The earliest prescribed French course, that of 1854, had, it will be recalled, given the schools wide latitude in the choice of grammars, permitting them to select any one of four text-books.

¹See Chapter X.

²See *Journal of Education*, 1871, Vol. XXV, No. 8, pp. 123 and 124.

But in practice, as has been shown, there were even more grammars in use, for teachers seem to have been governed largely by their personal preferences and frequently ignored the list authorized by the Council of Public Instruction. The revised programme of studies of 1865 had disallowed the use of more than one grammar and required that De Fivas' book supersede all others, thus introducing for the first time, as regards French, a principle that became of general application in Ontario in later years, the principle of *one course, one book*. Some teachers, nevertheless, did not consider themselves unduly hampered by the official restrictions of 1865 and continued to use the books of their choice. We find, for example, Ollendorff's as well as Fasquelle's grammars, books that were not authorized at the time, in use in a number of schools. There was, however, evidence of increasing respect for the official regulations as regards text-books, especially as these coincided with those required for matriculation examinations.

With reference to the text-books in French grammar the 1871 programme was, in a sense, then a compromise between the two earlier courses of study.¹ There was neither that rigidity that characterized the programme of 1865 nor the well-nigh full liberty in the selection of books that had been allowed a decade earlier. A choice of two grammars was now permitted—De Fivas' *Grammaire des Grammaires* (first authorized, as we have seen, in 1865)

¹In 1874 Ryerson submitted to the Council of Public Instruction the following resolution on text-books: "That, as in the high schools and collegiate institutes the greater part of the books used in teaching the classics of ancient and foreign modern languages, and the higher subjects of English education are not published in this country, but must be imported from abroad, option as to the text-books may be allowed to a considerable extent, without materially interfering with the efficiency of the schools, or causing great additional expense to parents." See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 171.

and Pujol's *Complete French Class-Book*. Both these grammars marked a substantial advance, in respect of methodology, over the earlier authorized grammars.

The programme of studies of 1871, unlike the programme issued six years before, made specific mention of oral French. This was to be begun in the third form, that is, the second year of the French course, with Collot's *Conversations* as the text-book and in the following year part III of Pujol's book was to form the basis for *viva voce* French. In practice, however, it appears that the requirements respecting oral work were rarely carried into effect.

The new programme increased the amount of French reading matter and prescribed better graded material. Instead of the pupil being plunged, as soon as he had acquired some knowledge of the grammar, directly into French classics, such as Fénelon's *Dialogues des Morts* or Voltaire's *Charles XII*, as had been done before, he was now to be introduced to the classical authors only after some preliminary practice in reading easier matter. This consisted of selections in Pujol's book (part IV) or De Fivas' *Elementary Reader*, which were to be begun in the third form and continued in the following year. The French classics—Voltaire, *Histoire de Charles XII* (chapters VI to VIII inclusive), and Corneille, *Horace* (acts I and II)—were relegated entirely to the last year.

All in all the French course of 1871 represented a decided advance over the programme previously prescribed. It was planned judiciously and in accordance with the best practices of the time. To resume, the first year of the course was to be spent in learning the essentials of French grammar. This study was to be continued also in the second year, when a course in reading and oral work was to be begun. These were to be carried along

in the final year, but the chief stress was now to be laid on the prescribed French classics, the professed goal of the course.

The admission of German into the Ontario high school curriculum was, as regards the present inquiry, one of the most noteworthy innovations of the Act of 1871. The humble beginnings of this subject were noted in a preceding chapter, in which it was also shown that in the first year of its authorization German was taught in only 16 out of the 102 high schools in the province and that there were only 232 pupils, or three per cent. of the total attendance, enrolled in this language. Table 14 gives the schools in which German was taught between 1871 and 1875 with the number of pupils registered in the subject in each school.

TABLE 14—SCHOOLS TEACHING GERMAN BETWEEN 1871 AND 1875, WITH THEIR ENROLMENTS IN THE SUBJECT¹

	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875
Aylmer.....				6	
Beamsville.....	3	2	2	1	12
Berlin (Kitchener).....	24	21	11	15	24
Brantford.....		8	7	6	16
Brighton.....				1	
Brockville.....				3	3
Caledonia.....		4	4		
Campbellford.....					6
Clinton.....	10	14	8	8	16
Cobourg.....	4	11	8	14	13
Collingwood.....			8	9	7
Dunnville.....		4	8	9	4
Elora.....		11	13	7	7
Fergus.....				1	
Fonthill.....	5	2	3	2	3
Galt.....	51	65	70	75	57
Grimsby.....	10	3			

¹Compiled from the Superintendent's Annual Reports.

TABLE 14—*Continued.*

Guelph.....	24	30	26	22	11
Hamilton.....	20	30		64	120
Ingersoll.....		8	6	8	5
Kingston.....		11	9		
Lindsay.....	4				
London.....	61	28	22	14	8
Markham.....		1			
Mount Pleasant.....			9	1	
Newcastle.....		3			
Oakville.....	5	5	3	13	6
Oakwood.....	2	2	1	1	1
Ottawa.....		8	14	16	21
Owen Sound.....		6	8	13	14
Peterborough.....		9	26	34	15
Pictou.....			12	6	
Port Hope.....	6		1		
Port Rowan.....	1				
St. Catharines.....		5		15	30
St. Mary's.....					7
Streetsville.....			8		
Toronto.....		45	61	70	57
Uxbridge.....			7	3	
Vienna.....		1			
Wardsville.....					2
Welland.....					5
Weston.....					13
Whitby.....					14
Windsor.....					12
Woodstock.....	2				
Total.....	232	341	372	462	509

This summary reveals some interesting facts regarding the early teaching of German in the high schools of Ontario. It is seen that there were only ten schools in which the language was taught uninterruptedly for five years after its official admission into the curriculum, *viz.*, the schools of Beamsville, Berlin, Clinton, Cobourg, Fonthill, Galt, Guelph, London, Oakville, and Oakwood. In a number of schools the subject was introduced only to be dropped again after a trial of a year or two. This was, no doubt, in part due to the dearth of teachers of

German. During the five years under review, moreover, the enrolment in German in the several schools did not manifest any consistent tendency to growth, and in a number of them even a diminution in the registration is to be noted. The most striking case is that of London, where the attendance in the language dwindled down from 61 in 1871 to only 8 in 1875. In Guelph the decline was from 24 to 11, and in Galt there was an initial increase followed by a decline. The school in Toronto manifested a similar tendency. In practically all the high schools the enrolment in German was small, and in several cases there were only one or two pupils pursuing the study.

The table shows, nevertheless, a gradual rise in the German registration, in consequence of the increase in the number of schools giving instruction in the subject. It is seen that in the five years beginning with 1871 German was taught in 16, 26, 26, 28, and 29 high schools respectively, and that the enrolment in the subject for these years was 232, 341, 372, 462, and 509. When compared with the entire attendance, the German registration is found to have grown in four years from three per cent. to six per cent. of the total. The following is a condensed summary of the larger table.

TABLE 15—NUMBER OF SCHOOLS TEACHING GERMAN BETWEEN 1871 AND 1875, NUMBER OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN THE SUBJECT, ETC.

Year	Number of Schools		Per Cent. Teaching German	Enrolment		Per Cent. in German
	Total	Teaching German		Total	in German	
1871	102	16	15.68	7490	232	3.10
1872	104	26	25.00	7986	341	4.27
1873	108	26	24.08	8437	372	4.41
1874	108	28	25.92	7871	462	5.87
1875	103	29	28.15	8342	509	6.10

The general plan of the German course prescribed in

1871 was, in the main, the same as for French (see table 13). The pupil began with the study of German grammar, for which Ahn's manual was the prescribed text-book. He was next introduced to Adler's *German Reader*, and the course culminated with the study of Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea* (canto II). In the German course no alternative textbooks were authorized, nor was oral practice in the language specifically prescribed.

By 1871 French was being taught in all but four of the high schools in the province. The quality of the instruction was, however, of an inferior nature in many of the institutions. Nor is this surprising when it is remembered that in the great majority of schools only one master was employed, who was required to teach single-handed all the manifold subjects in the programme of studies. Although by 1872 by far the greater number of high schools were staffed by two teachers, and in a few cases by more, one-master schools still constituted a serious problem.

In order to give effect to the new enlarged programme, the Council of Public Instruction now ordered that assistant masters be engaged in all the schools, contending that one man could not adequately teach all the subjects in the new high school course. The qualifications demanded of assistants were that they either hold public school teachers' certificates or be undergraduates of universities. Ryerson was, however, thwarted in his attempt to enforce the regulation respecting the employment of two teachers. The trustees of some high schools were opposed to the new requirement on the ground of the added expense involved, and they were heartened in their opposition by the Cabinet, which readily annulled the regulation objected to. The attorney-general ruled

that since French and German were not by law obligatory subjects in schools "where there are not sufficient funds to provide teachers" for these languages, "a high school board may be able to establish that one teacher can, with respect to a particular school, adequately fulfil the requirements"¹ of the new curriculum.

But even two teachers were not always equal to the task of teaching the whole range of subjects in the complex programme of 1871, and consequently French and German were taught badly in many schools, especially as regards pronunciation. Reporting² on a class in French in one of the largest schools in the province at this period, the grammar school inspector is at no pains to conceal his unspeakable vexation over the exhibition of French pronunciation by that class. He describes "the pronunciation with one or two exceptions" as "simply harrowing", and of the work in French in another school he says, "Performance outrageously bad".

The following excerpts from the inspectors' reports describe the teaching of modern languages when at its worst during this period. Each excerpt refers to a different school:

"Translated quite well, but could scarcely pronounce a word of French. Had been taught to translate without *reading* the French. . . . Not having been taught pronunciation they gave answers that would have set 'Mons. Pernet'³ mad, *e.g.*, What is *du* a contraction of? Answer, *dee, lee*, etc.

"The pronunciation was outrageous."

". . . the pronunciation generally was miserable."

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXIV, p. 80.

²The quotations that follow are from the inspectors' confidential reports. In the case of adverse comments it was thought advisable to omit the names of the schools and teachers concerned.

³Emile Pernet, at the time lecturer in French in University College.

"Did well; except pronunciation which was very bad."

"Mr. O. (teacher) makes no pretensions; he has but imperfect knowledge of the language (French) and takes it because no better arrangement for the present can be made."

"The class knew nothing of the subject (French)."

"Pupils quite deficient in accent. Grammar also extremely defective. Translation only tolerably good."

"Performance outrageously bad."

"He (teacher) allowed *Il le pour toi fera* to pass unnoticed and even repeated it. . . . I should say that Mr. H.'s French was doubtful."

Such then was the dark side of the picture. There were, however, on the other hand, a number of high schools in which French and German were taught with skill and in which the proficiency of the teachers was reflected in the high attainments of the pupils. A few of the larger schools had now special masters for modern languages, some of whom were natives.¹ In a considerable number of schools then the work in French and German was creditable, and in some cases even excellent.

A few of the modern language teachers of the period are singled out for special mention in the inspectorial reports of the time because of the effectiveness of their work. Their style of teaching modern languages is declared to be of an exceptionally high order. Of these outstanding modern language masters S. A. Marling, who before his appointment as high school inspector in 1872 had been principal of the Chatham High School, is said to have been one of the most efficient and most

¹Of one of these native teachers the inspector complains that "his pronunciation of English is horrible", and adds, "Neither his French nor his German pronunciation likewise is above criticism. He says *isht* for *ist*, gives the *w* the *w* sound in many words and calls *être*, *étur*," In the case of another native teacher the complaint is that although the "Rev. Mr. T., the German teacher, knows German", he "does not know the best mode of conveying his information to others."

successful.¹ Another teacher, W. Reiner² of the London High School, is commended for his method—obviously considered unique at the time in Ontario—of teaching colloquial French and German. He evidently foreshadowed what was later widely accepted as a standard device in modern language instruction. The inspector describes and comments on Mr. Reiner's method as follows: "His plan of basing questions in German and French on the text, which will necessitate answers almost in the words of the text, seems to me admirably calculated to introduce young people to a knowledge of colloquial French and German." A number of other teachers of modern languages received very favourable mention in the confidential reports of the inspectors of the period.

The French registration, as a whole, increased only slightly during the years under discussion and, as compared with the preceding period, made no gains whatever in proportion to the entire attendance. During the four years beginning with 1872 and ending in 1875 the average enrolment in French per year was 2,785 or 34.12% of the total.³ Inspector McLellan ascribed the slow increase in the number of pupils learning French to the absence of this study from the "English Course" (see page 149). He counselled that French be made part of this course and that in the "Classical Course" an option be permitted

¹" . . . I suspect it will be found", Inspector MacKenzie wrote, "that the palmy days of French in the Chatham High School terminated with the departure of Mr. Marling, whose management of the French language—including purity of accent—was distinguished by excellent taste and judgment and marked success."

²"W. Reiner", is evidently the same person as "Mr. William Reiner" who is mentioned in an earlier report, when he was on the staff of the Grimsby High School as teacher of mathematics, French and German. The inspector then said of him: ". . . Mr. Reiner, who is an excellent teacher of French and (as I am told) of German also, is not equally at home in euclid. Mr. R. has been much in France and teaches the language extremely well."

³The corresponding figures for Latin were 3,936 and 48.26%.

between this subject and Greek. His recommendation was, however, not acted upon.

The French and German programmes of 1871 remained in force without any modification until 1876. The important changes that were wrought in the modern language curriculum that year, simultaneously with the complete reorganization of the high school course, will be discussed in the chapter that follows.

CHAPTER X

THE INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION AND THE NEW STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGES (1876-1882)

The year 1876 ushered in momentous changes in the school system of Ontario, changes which affected both the mode of central control of education and the organization and curriculum of the high schools.

On the administrative side these innovations were consequent on the retirement of Egerton Ryerson, who, after serving during the closing years of his tenure of office under an unsympathetic government and being repeatedly subjected to petty embarrassments and indignities, relinquished in 1876 his duties as chief superintendent of education, thus breaking off a thirty-two year connection with the educational system of which he was the founder. The office of chief superintendent was now abolished and his duties transferred to a responsible minister, to be known as the Minister of Education. The Council of Public Instruction likewise passed out of existence, its functions henceforth devolving upon the Executive Council.

Simultaneously with these administrative changes a reorganization of the high school course was effected by

putting into operation the principle of "Payment by Results"¹ which had been sanctioned by the school law of 1871. This law had specified that the apportionment of the high school grant was to be made to each school on the basis of "the average attendance of pupils, *proficiency in the various branches of study*, and the length of time each high school is kept open."

Not until 1876, however, had a satisfactory formula been devised for the application of the principle of making the grant to each high school dependent, in part, on the attainments of its pupils.² The system of payment by results was designed as a remedial measure for many of the ills that were besetting the high schools, and was intended especially to raise the level of scholarship in the schools.

For the purpose of putting into effect the new principle the high school course was now divided into two parts, of two years' duration each, designated respectively as "Lower School" and "Upper School". At the end of the lower school, or at a point midway between the beginning and the end of the high school course, the pupils of each school were required to submit to an examination, known as the "Intermediate Examination", the result of which determined each school's share of that portion of the grant which was to be distributed in accordance with the proficiency of the pupils. The grant was to be apportioned on the basis of the number of pupils who passed the intermediate examination. This examination was to be uniform for the whole province; the papers were to be set and the answers read and evaluated by a central

¹The scheme was borrowed from England, where it was introduced in 1862 and affected only the elementary schools.

²See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXIII, pp. 172ff.; Vol. XXVII, pp. 216ff.; and Vol. XXVIII, pp. 102ff.

committee. The standard of the examination was intended to be equivalent to the second class teachers' examination.

The intermediate examination now became the pivotal point of the high school course. Everything was now subordinated to the ends of this examination, everything converged in it; for upon the success of the candidates in the "intermediate" depended not only the good name of their school but also the amount of its grant, and in some cases, its very existence. The intermediate examination gave rise to a novel type of stimulus, whose effects on secondary education proved lasting.

Meanwhile a revised programme of studies was issued, prescribing the subjects for the new examination. This programme represented in many essential respects a radical departure from previous regulations affecting the curriculum. The plan of prescribing minutely the studies to be taken up in each of the four forms was now given up. Instead of this only the subjects and the amount in each to be done in either of the two divisions of the high school, the lower school and the upper school, were indicated, and it was left to the discretion of the local authorities to arrange the course of each division in a manner that was best suited to the needs of the community.

The amended regulations of 1876 gave a new impetus to the study of modern languages by placing them on a par with the classical languages. The position of subordination accorded French and German in relation to Greek and Latin in the "Classical Course" of 1871 (no foreign languages being taught in the "English Course") no longer obtained. The distinction between the classical and English programmes having been discontinued, in the new common course that took their place modern languages were recognized as having equal rights with

the languages of antiquity. In the old course, as will be recalled, the study of Greek or Latin had been obligatory and that of modern languages optional only. The new regulations removed this inequality of curricular status by making moderns and classics alike, along with some other studies, optional subjects for both the intermediate examination and the upper school course.

There were indeed those who saw in the new regulations a menace to classical learning in the high schools, since modern languages as well as a number of other subjects could now compete with it on equal terms. It was, however, asserted by the grammar school inspectors, two years after the new scheme had been put into operation, that there were no grounds for any apprehension as to the continuity of the classical tradition in the schools. To quote the inspectors:

"We are pleased to be able to point to the statistics of the university matriculation examinations of this year (1878) as showing that these apprehensions have so far not been realized. The first intermediate examination having been held in 1876, the universities have just begun to feel the effects of the stimulus then given to secondary education. Not only has the number of matriculants greatly increased, but it is the general opinion that the knowledge of Greek and Latin displayed by them has, on the whole, been more satisfactory than ever before."¹

It must be borne in mind that success in the intermediate examination did not directly affect the candidate's eligibility for admission into the university, for which a special matriculation examination had to be tried. Now the programme of 1876 expressly exempted

¹Annual Report for 1877, Part III, p. 10.

candidates preparing for any matriculation examination from following the programme prescribed for the intermediate. They were to pursue only those studies that were directly preparatory for the university matriculation examination. Since of the foreign languages only Latin was obligatory for *all* the matriculation examinations, it is not surprising that given an option between classics and moderns, a large number of students selected the former. The preference for Latin was probably also frequently encouraged by headmasters, many of whom clung tenaciously to the classical traditions of the grammar schools of old, for the headmasters were empowered by the new regulations to make the decision when there was doubt regarding the optional subjects to be selected. The university requirements, then, as well as the lingering partiality for the classics in many of the schools for a time tended to counteract in a measure the impetus given by the new regulations to the study of modern languages.

Another factor, too, tended to detract in some degree from the new victory won by modern languages and to retard somewhat their onward march as a secondary school study. For although French and German had now received the fullest recognition ever accorded them up to that time, in being granted a status of equality with classics in the high schools, Greek and Latin still held the foreground in the curriculum of the collegiate institutes (see page 147 ante). Here the study of the classics still constituted the necessary condition for the continuance of these schools. They were created, as will be recalled, by the Act of 1871 as institutions especially consecrated to the pursuit of classical learning, and an indispensable stipulation for their establishment and

maintenance was a minimum of sixty boys studying Greek or Latin.¹

Dissatisfaction was, however, now being manifested from time to time with the discrimination against modern studies that was inherent in the regulations governing the collegiate institutes. Objection was also raised against the provision which made them exclusively boys' schools. The regulations were declared to be obsolete, out of keeping with the best educational thought of the day, and the call for their repeal became increasingly insistent. The question engaged the attention of both the high school inspectors and the Ontario Teachers' Association.

Inspector S. A. Marling² in 1879 counselled the abolition of compulsory Latin in the collegiate institutes and the amending of the law so as to make them co-educational schools, in which the study of modern languages and science should receive equal recognition with that of Latin. "Let French and German," he wrote, "be made equivalent to Latin, with those who prefer to take a modern language. . . . Let natural science (say chemistry and botany) be held in the same rank as Latin, or as French and German. I hazard these suggestions, in the belief that they will be found in harmony with the progressive spirit of modern education, thoroughly practicable, and acceptable to the high school masters."³ Inspector J. A. McLellan, in his report for

¹The following note, furnished me by a teacher recently retired from the service, throws an interesting sidelight on the way in which the letter of the law was sometimes observed:

"When collegiate institutes were established it was provided that any high school aspiring to the position of a collegiate institute must have sixty boys taking Latin. As a junior teacher in a certain high school in 1879 I was put at teaching Latin roots out of a spelling book to first and second form pupils, both girls and boys, and these were reported to the Department as taking Latin."

²See page 158 ante.

³Report of the Minister of Education for 1879, pp. 102f.

1880, likewise advocated the abolition of Latin as a requirement for collegiate institute standing. In 1881 the minister of education took counsel with the teachers of the province by submitting the question, along with others affecting secondary education, for the consideration of the Ontario Teachers' Association. The subject was discussed by the high school section of the Association, which adopted the following resolution: "That collegiate institutes should continue to exist, but that the basis of establishment and continuance should be broadened by including girls as well as boys, and by recognizing other studies as well as Latin and Greek."¹

The Greek and Latin basis was no longer tenable. The most progressive educational opinion was unanimous that there should be no "premium on the study or nominal study of Latin" which "must no longer be kept in its supreme position", that the study of Latin should be reserved for those pupils only who have a "reasonable prospect of making such attainments in it as would be of real benefit to them", and that, in short, the collegiate institutes and the high schools should follow a common curriculum in which modern languages and science should be on a parity with classics. In 1882, therefore, new regulations were issued (to take effect the following year) which repealed the old law governing the establishment of collegiate institutes and along with other things abolished the study of Greek or Latin as the basis for differentiating these institutions from high schools. By the new regulations the study of Greek and Latin was deprived of its prior rights, it was shorn of its old glory, and thus the last citadel of the classics in the secondary schools of Ontario was dismantled and razed. The

¹Report of the Minister of Education for 1880-1881, p. 127.

ancient and the modern languages were now to be of equal worth in the secondary schools of the province.

The University of Toronto, however, continued to set a higher value on classics, as was demonstrated not only by the greater prominence given to them than to moderns in the university curriculum but also by the requirements prescribed for the pass junior matriculation examination.

These requirements as laid down by the University of Toronto in 1876¹ gave but a feeble incentive to the study of modern languages; since for this examination French and German were purely voluntary, the obligatory subjects being classics, mathematics, English, history and geography. A candidate was, however, given the option of substituting French *and* German for Greek, provided he was proceeding to an honour course other than in classics.

The pre-eminent position held in the University by classics and mathematics is further illustrated by the way in which the comparative standing of candidates competing for scholarships for general proficiency was determined. The scholarship was to be awarded to the student obtaining the highest aggregate number of marks in all the subjects. These subjects were, however, not to be regarded as of equal importance. A numerical value was set on each subject according to the following schedule:

For Junior Matriculation:—Greek = 220, Latin = 220, mathematics = 440, English = 150, history and geography = 100, French = 100, German = 75.

For Senior Matriculation:—Classics = 500, mathematics = 500, English = 200, chemistry = 125, French = 125, German = 125.

¹See *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXVIII, pp. 94ff.

In the junior matriculation examination, then, French was considered as having less than half the value of Greek or Latin, and German as being worth only about a third as much as either of the classical languages. In the senior matriculation examination the value assigned to the modern languages was only 50 per cent. of the classical values.

Nevertheless French and German were now prescribed by the University of Toronto for each of the four types of matriculation examinations, *viz.*, pass junior matriculation, honour junior matriculation, pass senior matriculation, and honour senior matriculation. For the pass junior matriculation, to be sure, modern languages were voluntary, though they might be taken, as we have seen, by certain candidates as an option for Greek. For the remaining three examinations, however, French and German were obligatory. The subjects of the matriculation examinations in these languages, prescribed by the University of Toronto for 1877, are given in Table 16.

TABLE 16—SUBJECTS OF MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS
IN FRENCH AND GERMAN, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO,
1877

Pass Junior Matriculation (optional)—

FRENCH:—Grammar paper; easy French prose; Corneille, *Horace*, acts I and II.

GERMAN:—Grammar paper; Musäus, *Stumme Liebe*; Schiller, *Das Lied von der Glocke*.

Honour Junior Matriculation—

FRENCH:—Corneille, *Horace*, acts III, IV, and V; Dumas, *La Tulipe Noire*; translation from easy authors not specified.

GERMAN:—Schiller, *Der Neffe als Onkel*.

Pass Senior Matriculation—

FRENCH:—Grammar paper; De Staël, *De l'Allemagne*, première partie; easy translation into French prose.

GERMAN:—Grammar paper; Fouqué, *Aslaugas Ritter*; outlines of German literature, 1300-1670.

Honour Senior Matriculation—

FRENCH:—Molière, *L'Avare*, *Les Fourberies de Scapin*; Montalembert, *De l'Avenir Politique de l'Angleterre*; translation from authors not specified.

GERMAN:—Schiller, *Wallensteins Lager*; Chamisso, *Peter Schlemihl*; easy translation into German.

The programme of studies in French and German issued in 1876 for students in the upper school (*i.e.*, the third and fourth years of the high school) was prescribed with a view to the matriculation requirements set by the University of Toronto, to become effective in 1877. The upper school curriculum in modern languages appears amazingly heavy. It is quite manifest, however, that no student was expected to take the whole course, but rather to select from it those subjects that were required for the particular matriculation examination for which he was presenting himself. Table 17 gives the French and German programmes of the upper school course, issued in 1876.

TABLE 17—UPPER SCHOOL PROGRAMME IN FRENCH AND GERMAN, 1876¹

FRENCH:—Grammar and exercises; Corneille, *Horace*; Dumas, *La Tulipe Noire*; De Staël, *De l'Allemagne*, première partie; Molière, *L'Avare* and *Les Fourberies de Scapin*; Montalembert, *De l'Avenir Politique de l'Angleterre*; trans-

¹See Annual Report for 1876, p. 157.

lation from English into French; conversation, etc., as far as is required for senior matriculation with honours.

GERMAN:—Grammar and exercises; Musäus, *Stumme Liebe*; Schiller, *das Lied von der Glocke*, *Der Neffe als Onkel*, and *Wallensteins Lager*; Fouqué, *Aslaugas Ritter*; Chamisso, *Peter Schemihl*; outlines of German literature, 1300-1670.

The French and German curricula of the lower school (comprising the first two years of the high school) provided an introductory course in these languages. The French programme did not differ appreciably from that prescribed for the elementary work in this language in 1871, and in German the only important innovation was the addition of "rudiments of conversation". The lower school programme of 1876 aimed to acquaint the pupils with the elements of French and German grammar, to give them some facility in translating English into the foreign tongue as well as some practice in reading French and German, and lastly they prescribed a modicum of conversation in these languages. The French and German courses paralleled each other very closely.

TABLE 18—LOWER SCHOOL PROGRAMME IN FRENCH AND GERMAN, 1876¹

FRENCH:—The accidence and the principal rules of syntax; exercises; introductory and advanced French reader; retranslation of easy passages into French; rudiments of conversation.

GERMAN:—The accidence and principal rules of syntax; exercises; Adler's *German Reader*, first, second,

¹See Annual Report for 1876, p. 156.

and third parts; retranslation of easy passages into German; rudiments of conversation.

French and German, as has been noted, were now on a par in the high school curriculum with their rival languages Greek and Latin. But all foreign languages had ceased to be compulsory subjects. The lower school programme made obligatory only the study of English, mathematics, history and geography, allowing an option between Latin, French, German, and a group of subjects consisting of physics, chemistry, and bookkeeping. In the upper school the prescribed subjects of study were English, mathematics, history, and any two of French, German, Latin, Greek, and physical science.

Meanwhile some modifications were introduced in the French and German high school programmes. The upper school courses were considerably simplified by reducing the prescribed authors to two for each language, and the French lower school course was somewhat amplified by the addition of an author. The changes effected by the revised course of studies are noted in tables 19 and 20.

TABLE 19—HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMMES IN FRENCH AND GERMAN, 1877¹

LOWER SCHOOL

FRENCH:—The accidence and principal rules of syntax; exercises; De Fivas' *Introductory French Reader*; Voltaire, *Charles XII* (to be discontinued after 1877) or Souvestre, *Un Philosophe sous les Toits*; retranslation of easy passages into French; rudiments of conversation.

GERMAN:—The same as in 1876.

¹See Annual Report for 1877, Part III, pp. 148 and 149.

UPPER SCHOOL

FRENCH:—Grammar and exercises; Souvestre, *Un Philosophe sous les Toits*; Corneille, *Horace*; translation from English into French; conversation; the other subjects required for senior matriculation with honours.¹

GERMAN:—Grammar and exercises; Musäus, *Stumme Liebe*; Schiller, *Die Bürgschaft*, *Der Taucher*, and *Der Neffe als Onkel*;² translation from English into German; conversation; the other subjects required for senior matriculation with honours.

TABLE 20.—AUTHORIZED FRENCH AND GERMAN TEXT-BOOKS OTHER THAN AUTHORS, 1877³

FRENCH				
Grammars	Readers	Composition	Conversation	Dictionaries
De Fivas, <i>Grammaire des Grammaires</i> ; Haas, <i>Introduction to the French Language</i> .	De Fivas, <i>Elementary French Reader</i> ; Hachette's <i>First French Reader</i>	Contanseau, <i>Guide to French Translation</i> .	Collot, <i>Conversations</i> ; Hachette's <i>French Dialogues</i> .	Surenne, <i>French Dictionary</i> ; Contanseau, <i>Practical Dictionary</i> .

GERMAN

Ahn, *German Grammar*.

Otto, *German Conversation-Grammar*.

Adler, *Progressive German Reader*.

Hachette's *German Dialogues*.

As regards the authors prescribed in the programmes of 1876 and 1877 an important new tendency is discernible, namely, the admission of modern writers such as Dumas and Montalembert. The first modern French text to be prescribed for the intermediate examination (as also

¹The authors prescribed for 1879 were Corneille, *Horace*, and La Fontaine, *Fables*.

²In the prescription for 1879 *Der Neffe als Onkel* was omitted.

³Annual Report for 1877, Part III, p. 140.

for the junior matriculation examination set by the University of Toronto) was Souvestre's *Un Philosophe sous les Toits*, a work which subsequently enjoyed great vogue in the high schools.¹ We have here then an important innovation in the modern language curriculum, an innovation that marks a parting of the ways in language teaching between ancient and modern languages and the earliest concession to a principle, later universally accepted, that the learner's first approach to French and German literature must be through contemporary writings and that the study of a modern language must draw its inspiration from the present day life of the people whose language is being learned.

What were the fortunes of German in the high schools of Ontario during the period under review? German occupied in the modern language course a position analogous to that of Greek in the classical programme. Each was a second language. In both programmes the attention was centred mainly in French and Latin respectively. These languages attracted by far larger numbers of pupils than German and Greek.

The respective enrolments in the latter languages at the beginning of the period were 362 and 905. That is, there were two and a half times as many pupils studying Greek as there were studying German. The enrolment in Greek did not, however, long maintain this lead. The German registration was constantly gaining on it, practically overtook it in 1881 and outstripped it the following year. There is an inverse relation observable in the enrolments in these two languages: there is a constant though slow rise in the German attendance and as

¹It was prescribed as a text for the junior matriculation examination every alternate year from 1878 to 1890 and was on the curriculum as recently as 1924.

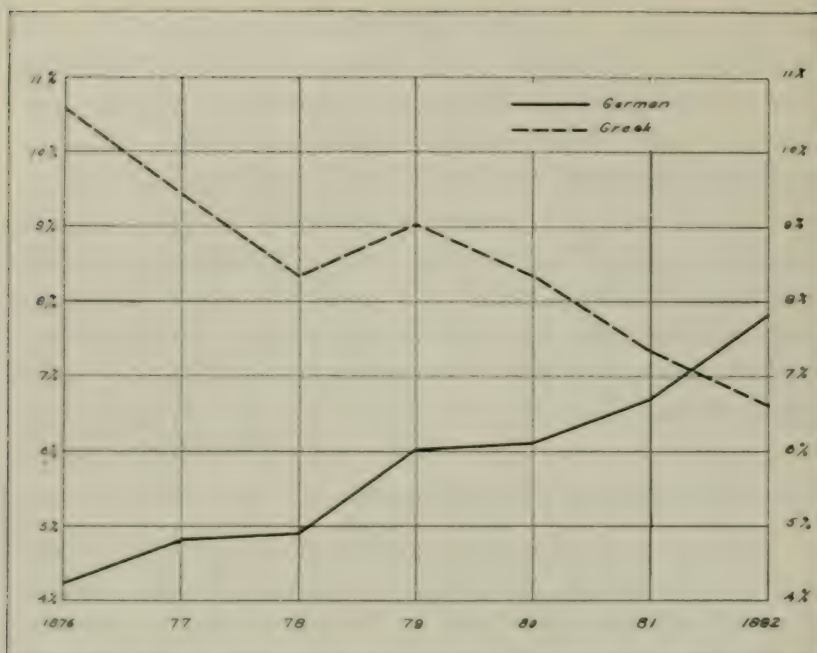


Fig. 7.—RISE AND FALL IN GERMAN AND GREEK ENROLMENT RESPECTIVELY BETWEEN 1876 AND 1882

constant a decline in the Greek (see Fig. 7). Evidently an increasing number of pupils were now forsaking or avoiding the Greek classes and joining the German. In this they were encouraged, as we have seen, by the

TABLE 21.—GROWTH IN THE NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS TEACHING GERMAN BETWEEN 1876 AND 1882

Year	Number of High Schools		Per cent. Teaching German
	Total	Teaching German	
1876	104	27	25.96
1877	104	29	27.88
1878	104	44	42.30
1879	104	48	46.15
1880	104	54	51.92
1881	104	51	49.04
1882	104	56	53.85

revised regulations of the University of Toronto which permitted certain classes of junior matriculation candidates to substitute French and German for Greek. A similar privilege was also given by the Law Society to candidates seeking admission as students-at-law.¹

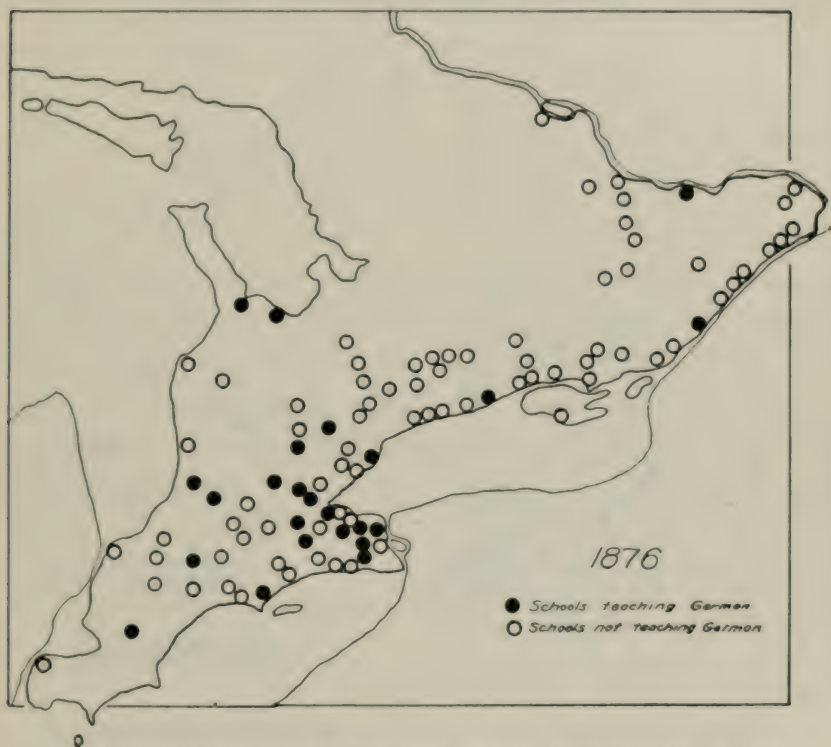


Fig. 8.—DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS TEACHING GERMAN IN 1876

Nevertheless the number of students learning German was augmented only slowly, though the opportunities for this study in the high schools of the province were becoming increasingly plentiful (see table 21 and figures 8 and 9). In 1876 the language was taught in only twenty-seven high schools, or in 26 per cent. of the schools in

¹*Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XXVIII, pp. 111f.

operation. Six years later the number of high schools giving courses in German had increased to fifty-six, that is 54 per cent. of all the schools. Thus, whereas the number of schools teaching German had grown from 26 per cent. of the total to 54 per cent., the corresponding rise in the German registration in relation to total



FIG. 9.—DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS TEACHING GERMAN IN 1882

attendance was only from about 4 per cent. to nearly 8 per cent. The absolute increase in the German enrolment was, however, considerable, namely, from 362 in 1876 to 962 in 1882, representing an increase of 165 per cent. Nevertheless, the number of students availing themselves of the opportunities for the study of German continued to be small as compared with those pursuing

the other subjects of the curriculum. Table 22 shows the slow rate of growth of the German enrolment.

TABLE 22.—HIGH SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN GERMAN FROM 1876 TO 1882

Year	Number of Pupils		Per cent. in German
	Total	In German	
1876	8,541	362	4.24
1877	9,229	442	4.79
1878	10,574	516	4.88
1879	12,136	729	6.01
1880	12,910	859	6.65
1881	13,136	877	6.68
1882	12,348	962	7.79

On the other hand, the registration in French reached during the period under discussion and especially toward the end of the period the highest point it had ever

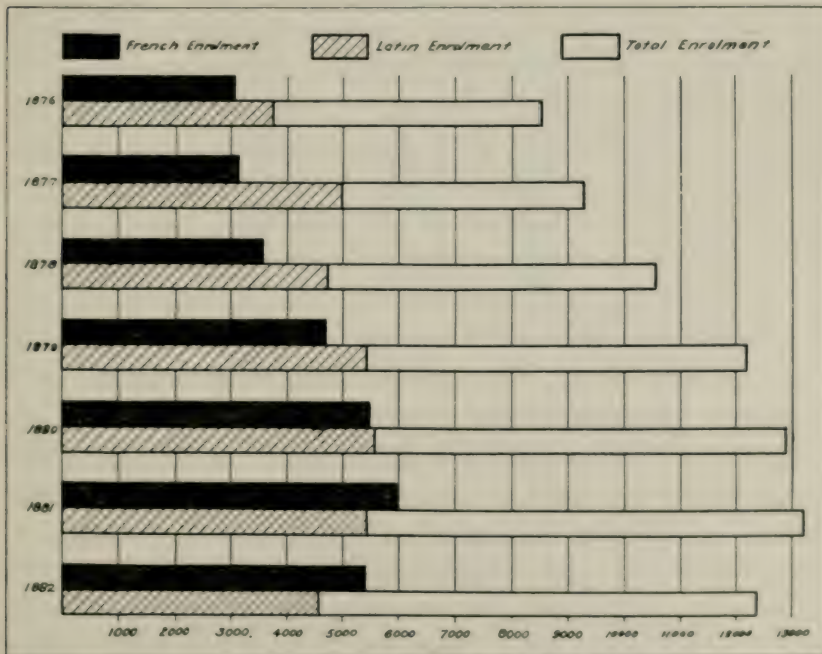


Fig. 10.—COMPARISON OF FRENCH AND LATIN ENROLMENTS BETWEEN 1876 AND 1882

attained, both as regards the absolute number of pupils pursuing this study and in comparison with the total enrolment, for there were in 1881, 5,938 pupils, or 46 per cent. of the total number in attendance, enrolled in French. Thus for the first time in the history of the Ontario high schools French gained a lead on its competing language, Latin (see table 23 and fig. 10) a lead that it retained until 1895. It is seen that the impetus given to the study of French by the new programme of studies was powerful and was being concretely manifested in the unprecedented number of students in the high schools seeking to gain some knowledge of the language.

TABLE 23.—PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS STUDYING FRENCH AND LATIN
RESPECTIVELY EACH YEAR FROM 1876 TO 1882

Year	Per cent of Total Enrolment	
	In French	In Latin
1876	35.58	44.36
1877	33.49	53.68
1878	33.91	44.72
1879	38.62	44.42
1880	42.33	43.06
1881	45.96	41.03
1882	43.43	37.18

But the quality of the instruction in modern languages did not necessarily rise with the growth in the number of students learning them. Indeed, in the opinion of the inspectors of the time the methods of teaching foreign languages were such as to lead to disappointing results. The obvious aim of foreign language study, namely, to acquire the key with which to unlock the literary treasures of foreign countries, was, so the inspectors maintained, only rarely achieved. In the words of the high school inspectors of 1877:

"It must be admitted that the results obtained from the present methods of teaching Latin, Greek, French and German appear meagre, when the amount of time devoted to these subjects is taken into consideration. Only an exceedingly small percentage of those who begin any one of these languages ever become able to read it with any degree of facility."¹

However, they find solace in the thought that although the study of languages as pursued in the schools does not usually lead to the specific direct results aimed at, there are certain "indirect benefits", by-products, as it were, of language study which, though not tangible enough to be readily measurable, are none the less real. These indirect benefits derivable from the study of languages are, according to the inspectors, increased power in the use of the vernacular, "grammatical and logical training afforded by the parsing and analysis of sentences", "the development of that capacity for seizing and appreciating distinctions which may be regarded as lying at the foundation of all knowledge", and lastly, "a certain amount of historical knowledge incidentally picked up during the study of the languages". We have here a defence of language study, frequently repeated subsequently, on the ground of the general mental discipline conferred by it, the claim that specific linguistic training will function in improving other mental capacities. The general rationale of the doctrine of formal discipline had not yet been subjected to scientific scrutiny and its main tenets had not yet been called in question.

Despite their satisfaction with the supposed incidental results of language study the inspectors, as has been noted, expressed displeasure with the achievements in the study itself. They strike a decidedly modern note when they

¹Annual Report, 1877, Part III, p. 7.

plead for more extensive reading in the foreign languages and deprecate the over-emphasis of theoretical grammar. They write:¹

" . . . The fact still remains that the aim with which languages were first studied, namely, to acquire the ability to use them freely, is an aim which is comparatively rarely attained, and that in consequence the culture which is the fruit of a knowledge of the literature of Greece, Rome, France, or Germany, is placed within the reach of very few.² We are not, however, of the opinion that our high schools would be found, if compared with those of other new countries, deficient in the results of their language-teaching. Perhaps, even if compared with those of old countries, the results would not appear markedly low, the time devoted to the subject being taken into account; but we are inclined to think that the methods of instruction generally employed may be modified with advantage, and that the present system of examinations in language, and the character of the questions asked may be advantageously changed. These changes should have for their general object an increase in the quantity read and translated, and a diminution in the time spent in acquiring a knowledge of facts which are not necessary for a clear understanding of the text. . . . In fine, it seems better that a pupil should acquire a knowledge of the exceptions to the general rules in almost every case, and of some of the general rules themselves, rather in the process of translating and retranslating, than through learning by heart long lists in a grammar."

¹Annual Report for 1877, Part III, p. 7.

²The year before the inspectors had complained in a similar strain: "After years of poring over grammar and lexicon, how few are there that care, after leaving school, to take up their language studies again, or who can trace an advantage derived from them at all commensurate with the time and pains bestowed!"

That a knowledge of French and German grammatical rules learnt by rote was no guarantee of ability to apply them was attested by the examiners of the intermediate examination papers: "In both French and German composition, students who show a fair theoretical knowledge of the subject are found incapable of applying the simplest rules of syntax."¹ The examiners found the attainments of the students in modern languages markedly unequal in the various schools. This was especially true of German, in which the papers were reported to be "mostly either very good or very poor."

If the measurable results of modern language teaching were frequently inadequate, those that did not admit of measurement by central examination were even more so. The intermediate examination tended, as external examinations have since tended, to focus the attention solely in those elements of language instruction that were to be subjected to a test, since the *results* in these alone determined the *payment* to the school for success achieved in the examination.

"The consequence is," Inspector Buchan wrote in 1879, "that there is a tendency to neglect these things [drawing, music, reading, etc.] and everything else which does not pay. So far has this tendency affected some masters that I have found them teaching French without attending to the pronunciation of their pupils. . . . In

¹The extent to which theoretical grammar was emphasized will appear from the following typical questions on the subject taken from French and German matriculation papers of the time: "What is the place of the verb in a German sentence?" "Define the uses of *haben*, *sein*, and *werden* as auxiliaries. . . ." "What substantives are masculine?"—1873. "Enumerate the [French] relative pronouns." "Distinguish between *en* and *dans*, *avant* and *devant*."—1876. "What letters have more than one sound in French?" "State briefly and systematically what you know about [French] (a) adjectives, (b) past participles, (c) adverbs, (d) prepositions, (e) the subjunctive mood."—1880. "What are the uses of *tu* and *vous*."—1882.

short, under our present system of payment by results, we pay for only one result, and are in danger of reducing our high schools to a state in which they will produce no other."¹

Inspector Marling wrote in a similar strain:² "While written examinations test much, they cannot test everything, and accordingly we find a constant tendency to neglect what does not 'tell' at such an ordeal". Thus pronunciation in the languages "holds a very secondary place in the popular estimation, there being no *viva voce* test at the examination." Nevertheless, despite its obvious shortcomings, Inspector Marling in 1879 advocated, as had also his predecessors, the continuance, with some modifications, of the system of payment by results.

But its days were now numbered, for its defects and abuses had become too glaring. The scheme had manifestly miscarried. There was a growing demand for its discontinuance, and it was borne in upon those controlling the educational destinies of the province that the intermediate examination as then conducted defeated the very ends of education. Accordingly the system of payment by results was abandoned in 1882, six years after its inception, as an educational experiment that had failed to work out.

A recent writer³ traces to the habits formed during the period of payment by results the reverence in which written examinations have since been held in the high schools of the province. The fetish set up then was worshipped by successive generations of votaries, and to this day they come and prostrate themselves before it.

¹Report of the Minister of Education, 1879, p. 98.

²*Ibid.*, p. 103.

³Bell, *The Development of the Ontario High School*, p. 148.

"The present examination habit", he says "was acquired in the trial of 'payment by results'. The mill has been grinding ever since." The intermediate examination of 1876-1882 "created in the public mind too great a respect for the written examination. It fastened upon many schools a vicious kind of slavery, the shackles of which have not yet been thrown off."¹ And, it should be added, the baneful effects of the idolatry of external examinations have nowhere been more in evidence than in modern language teaching.

CHAPTER XI

THE RISE OF A NEW IDEOLOGY AND THE ADVENT OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE SPECIALIST (1883-1904)

The account given in the present chapter covers a period of about twenty years. These are not sharply demarcated, as regards the history of modern language teaching, either from those immediately preceding or following. The boundaries of the period were perhaps somewhat arbitrarily chosen, especially so the later limit. There are, nevertheless, some tendencies discernible in these two decades that give them a certain unity and in some measure set them off from the periods before and after. The tendencies markedly in evidence during the years under review were the spread of new ideals respecting the study of French and German and the awakening of the professional consciousness of the teachers of these languages. The period here discussed begins with the abolition of the system of payment by results in the early eighties, and the story is advanced past the

¹Bell, *The Ontario High School, Past and Future*, in the *Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association*, 1920, p. 400.

first few years of the new century, when certain important changes were introduced in the organization and curriculum of the secondary schools of Ontario.

Before pursuing the fortunes of the study of French and German in the high schools of Ontario a brief account must be given of a movement in modern language instruction, which first asserted itself cogently in Germany in the eighties and spread thereafter with increasing momentum, whose force has not yet spent itself, to many other lands.

The die was cast in 1882 with the appearance in Germany of an anonymous pamphlet entitled *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!*, whose author proved to be Dr. Viëtor, Professor of English at the University of Marburg. "Seldom has a bulky folio," says Leopold Bahlsen,¹ "made so great a sensation, produced so large a literature of praise and bitter attack as this small pamphlet consisting of scarcely two score pages." Though it was by no means the first uttered protest against existing conditions in the study of modern languages in Germany, and contained little that was essentially new, its effect was stupendous. It proved a firebrand that set aflame the smouldering discontent of decades.

Viëtor's monograph was a scathing arraignment of the obsolete methods of modern language instruction that were in vogue, their lifelessness and unnaturalness. The author denounced the artificiality of the text-books with their disjointed, meaningless sentences, their all-absorbing attention to grammar, and the prominence given to translation. Summing up the results of a prolonged linguistic training in school, he says with ill-concealed contempt:

"Lässt ihn die Schule endlich frei, so ist dem abgehetztem Schüler; die Sprache der alten Römer und Hellenen, ja das

¹*The Teaching of Modern Languages*, p. 18.

lebendige Englisch und Französisch der Gegenwart im wahren Sinne des Wortes fremd wie zuvor. Sechs oder gar neun lange Jahre hat er Schalen geknackt: nun geht er, ohne dass er einen Kern gekostet hätte."¹

The stress in language teaching, Viëtor argues, must be shifted to the living, spoken word, and in learning to read a foreign language one must have regard mainly for the content of the matter, which must be fresh and vital. Grammar must henceforth abdicate its position of master and become a servant merely. The classical method of teaching this subject, he says, must give way to the analytical-inductive method. But, above all, Viëtor emphasizes the need of accurate pronunciation to be acquired by the learner through a study of the sounds of the foreign language. He makes an eloquent plea for the then new science of phonetics.

Such, in brief, was Viëtor's message. It served as the trumpet call that rallied the progressive forces of modern language teachers both in Germany and abroad. A vigorous movement for the reform of the methods, as well as of the subject matter of modern language teaching, was effectively launched. Outside of Germany the movement was energetically sponsored by such men as Sweet and Bell in England, and Passy in France; and in Scandinavia its effects were strikingly evidenced by the founding of an organization having as its declared purpose the promulgation of Viëtor's teachings. In the United States, too, the movement found many zealous followers.

Nor was Ontario unaffected by the ferment of ideas abroad. To be sure, the advance of the reform movement was here hampered by the iron barrier of the central examinations, but its influence manifested itself, never-

¹*Op. cit.*, p. 26.

theless, during the eighties and nineties of the last century, in the rise of new ideals respecting the study of French and German, in the birth of the group consciousness of the modern language teachers, their repeated declarations of their new credo, and, in short, their emergence as a separate unit among the secondary school teachers of the province.

This professional awakening was aided to a large extent by the inauguration of a system of training for high school teachers, the beginnings of which were made in 1885. Prior to this time no institution existed in the province for the professional preparation of secondary school teachers, if we except an abortive attempt to establish training courses for such teachers in connection with the Model Grammar School.

This school, which was opened in Toronto in 1858, had a dual purpose: first, to exemplify the best methods of teaching the various secondary school studies and, secondly, to give professional training to intending grammar school teachers. The latter of these objects was, however, carried into effect for only a short period just before the abandonment of the entire venture, for the Model Grammar School came to grief in 1863, five years after its establishment.¹

For the next twenty-two years the anomaly persisted

¹Both French and German were included in the curriculum of the Model Grammar School. (See Annual Report for 1857, pp. 353 f.) But it is not certain whether the latter language was taught, although the French master, Emile Coulon, was well qualified to teach this subject. The following minute occurs in the proceedings of the Council of Public Instruction of August 24, 1858, (as quoted in *Doc. Hist.*, Vol. XIV, p. 58): "Ordered that Monsieur Emile Coulon be appointed, upon trial, as French master; that he be required to teach two hours a day in the Model Grammar School, and that his salary be at the rate of eighty pounds, (£80) per annum." Coulon seems to have retained the post until 1862, when he left Toronto on an extended trip to Europe. See Ryerson's testimonial in *Poetical Leisure Hours and Torontonian Descriptions* by Emile Coulon.

in the educational system of the province of providing only for the professional training of elementary school teachers and neglecting that of the teachers in the secondary schools. All that was required of headmasters in these schools was that they hold a university degree, and there were for a long time no special requirements of any kind for assistants. In the seventies there was a growing demand for professional training of high school teachers, and accordingly some rudimentary requirements were laid down which, however, proved ineffectual. Not until 1885, then, was any serious attempt made to enforce the possession of pedagogical qualifications by high school teachers. The training then instituted was to be obtained at a number of the collegiate institutes, which were designated as "training institutes". To the two schools, those of Hamilton and Kingston, which were originally denominated for this purpose, there were added by 1888 the collegiate institutes of Strathroy, Guelph, and Owen Sound. In these schools the teachers-in-training received a fourteen weeks' course in the theory and practice of teaching. Attention was given to all the subjects of the high school curriculum, and each of the departmental masters in turn, including the modern language teacher, was required to take special charge of the teachers-in-training. But permission was given from the first for specialization in any one of the five departments of the high school course (English, science, mathematics, classics and modern languages), for it was expressly provided that "teachers-in-training who desire to become teachers of special departments shall devote themselves chiefly to these departments."¹

In the training institutes of the eighties we have

¹See Report of the Minister of Education, 1885, p. 59.

the beginnings of professional specialization in modern languages. To be sure, these beginnings were extremely meagre, for in the first year of the establishment of these institutes only one candidate passed as a specialist in French and German, and for the next four years the number of these specialists continued to be small, although by 1889 they were more numerous than the specialists in any of the other branches except those in English, by whom they were equalled in number.

That the supply of specialists in modern languages (as well as in science) was at the time not equal to the demand is clear from the high school inspector's report. "For some time to come", he says, "teachers especially competent to take these departments may safely count on vacancies, worth from \$800 to \$1,000, and even more. . . . The supply of competent teachers of moderns and science has not kept pace with the requirements of the schools."¹

The training institutes were at best only a temporary make-shift. A more satisfactory arrangement was instituted in 1889 with the establishment of the School of Pedagogy (situated in Toronto) with which the training institutes were affiliated. The course, as before, lasted fourteen weeks, seven of which were to be spent in the School of Pedagogy and the rest at one of the training institutes. In the former lectures were given on the methodology of the several high school subjects, including French and German. In the examination in methods a concession was made to those wishing to specialize, for the candidates were given a choice of subjects. University graduates were required to be examined in methods in Latin and either Greek or French and German, and other

¹See Report of the Minister of Education, 1889, p. 195.

candidates had to undergo an examination in the methodology of science or classics or modern languages.¹

But the academic attainments demanded of specialists were still inadequate to qualify them fully to give instruction in their special departments. An important innovation in the regulations was accordingly introduced in 1894 whereby graduation from a university honour course in English, mathematics, classics or moderns (combined with professional training at the School of Pedagogy) was made a prerequisite for ranking as a specialist in any one of these departments.² An immediate strict enforcement of the new regulation was, however, not contemplated. Since "there are many candidates", the minister of education wrote, "looking forward to this distinction [a specialist's certificate] who are not attending a university, and who have already taken, or are about to take, the examination with that end in view, a reasonable time should be allowed them within which to complete their course."

In the minister's report for 1894, 71 teachers were listed as specialists in French and German, all of whom with the exception of six were university graduates, and of these graduates all but eight had received their degrees from the University of Toronto. By 1900 the modern language specialists had increased to 104, though their proportion to the total number of specialists had grown only slightly, namely, from twenty-two per cent. to twenty-four and a half per cent.

Meanwhile the training institutes hitherto in connection with the School of Pedagogy had been discontinued (1891) and the observation and practice teaching was then done in the two collegiate institutes in Toronto. This

¹See Report of Minister of Education, 1892, p. 69.

²See Report of the Minister of Education, 1894, p. xxxiv and p. 63.

arrangement, however, proved unsatisfactory and was soon abandoned. The want of a practice school constituted for some years a serious deficiency in the system of training of high school teachers, and was only partially remedied by the artificial device of the teachers-in-training forming themselves into classes for the purpose of practice teaching.

A step forward was taken in 1896 when the School of Pedagogy, whose name was now changed to the Ontario Normal College, was removed to Hamilton where it was affiliated with the Hamilton Collegiate Institute, whose building was used jointly by the two institutions. This new plan permitted a close articulation between the theory and the practice of teaching and represented a decided advance over the artificial scheme that had obtained in Toronto.

Such in outline were the early steps by which the professional training of modern language teachers was evolved. This evolution, as we have seen, began in the middle eighties and was quickened considerably a decade later. There were by that time in the high schools of Ontario a substantial number of teachers who had chosen modern languages as their special domain and to whom the subject was of vital concern.

There had, of course, been teachers in the high schools devoting themselves to this specialty even before the system of training outlined above had been inaugurated, but not until after the middle of the eighties did they manifest their professional consciousness in a definite way. The advent of the reform movement in modern language teaching abroad, to which reference has already been made, and the establishment of a system of secondary school teacher training, though very rudimentary at first, raised materially the professional pride of the teachers of

French and German, lent a new meaning and purpose to their vocation, and infused a new spirit into their work.

The first fruit of this professional awakening was the establishment in 1886 of the Modern Language Association of Ontario, an organization which according to the original constitution was to be dedicated to the "promotion of the interests of modern language study in Ontario."¹ In response to the newer movements in language teaching, similar organizations were at the time springing up in various countries. The Modern Language Association of America² had been founded three years before the Ontario organization came into being, the Verband der Deutschen Neuphilologischen Lehrschaften was established in the same year as the latter, and the Modern Language Association of Great Britain and Ireland was organized six years later. All these testified to the new spirit that was vivifying the teachers of modern languages everywhere and to their zeal for reforms in the study of these languages.

The founding of the Modern Language Association of Ontario was one of the most notable events in the history of modern language teaching in the province during the closing decades of the last century. It enabled the teachers of French and German for the first time to act concertedly for the advancement of a common cause, and served as an effective agency for the promulgation of their new ideals. It made these teachers, as a group, articulate.

So important and far-reaching has been the influence

¹ English was for several years included within the purview of the Association.

²The following congratulatory telegram was received by the Modern Language Association of Ontario at its first session from the Modern Language Association of America: "Baltimore, Md., U.S., Dec. 29, 1886. The Modern Language Association of America assembled in convention today at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, sends greetings and best wishes to the Modern Language Association now forming at Toronto. (Signed) President, Franklin Carter; secretary, A. M. Elliott."

of the Modern Language Association that a brief statement of the circumstances attending its foundation will not be without interest. The opening sentence of the first minute book of the Association gives the following brief account: "During the session of the Ontario Teachers' Association held in the Education Department, Toronto, in the month of August, 1886, the following persons interested in the study and teaching of modern languages met one evening in one of the rooms of the Education Department and determined to make an endeavour to organize those interested in modern language study in the province of Ontario, into a society." The names of eight modern language teachers (including some of university and some of high school rank) then follow.¹

As a result of the preliminary conference the organization of the Modern Language Association of Ontario was effected in December of the same year, at a meeting, attended by university and secondary school teachers, when a constitution was drafted and adopted, officers elected, and the general policy of the society enunciated.²

The first secretary-treasurer of the Association, John Squair, whose unexpected death, though at an advanced age, occurred while the present chapter was in the course

¹These were "J. M. Hunter, M.A., of Barrie; A. W. Wright, B.A., of Galt; Wm. Houston, M.A., of Toronto; C. Whetham, M.A., of Baltimore, Md.; J. H. Cameron, B.A., of Toronto; E. J. McIntyre, B.A., of St. Catharines; A. H. Young, of Toronto; and J. Squair, B.A., of Toronto."

²The first officers of the organization were, honorary president, Dr. Daniel Wilson, at the time president of University College and later president of the University of Toronto; president, W. H. Van der Smitten, then lecturer in German in University College; vice-president, G. E. Shaw, teacher of modern languages at the Jarvis St. Collegiate Institute, Toronto; secretary-treasurer, J. Squair, at the time lecturer in French in University College. In addition to these there were eight councillors.

In 1893 the Modern Language Association became affiliated with the Ontario Teachers' Association, as did also the Classical, the Mathematical, and the Natural Science Associations which had been formed following the example of the Modern Language Association.

of preparation, was chiefly responsible for the creation and successful development of the new organization,¹ with which he maintained an uninterrupted contact from the day of the preliminary conference to the last meeting held in 1927, at which he was one of the speakers. During this time he held the office of secretary-treasurer three times, for periods of seven years, eight years, and one year respectively, as well as the positions of president and honorary president, and the crowning recognition of his work was given in 1908 when he was made an honorary life member of the Association.

Of the original members² who definitely influenced the development of the Modern Language Association and thus materially affected the course of the history of modern language instruction in Ontario the name of W. H. Fraser³ stands out prominent. He was one of the

¹See Young, *The Association's Twenty-five Years* in the *Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association*, 1911, p. 174. Professor Squair modestly refers to the founding of the Association as an event "in which the writer had a share." (*John Seath*, p. 65.)

²According to the minutes of the Association the following persons were present at the first meeting held on Wednesday, December 29, 1886, in the University College Y.M.C.A. building: D. Wilson, LL.D., Geo. E. Shaw, B.A., W. H. Van der Smissen, M.A., W. H. Fraser, B.A., A. W. Wright, B.A., R. Balmer, B.A., E. J. McIntyre, B.A., J. H. Cameron, B.A., P. Toews, M.A., A. H. Young, Miss K. F. Hagarty, Miss E. De Wilton, L. H. Alexander, M.A., F. H. Sykes, M.A., John Seath, B.A., J. Blackstock, B.A., D. R. Keys, B.A., J. C. Robertson, B.A., G. F. Lawson, B.A., J. M. Hunter, B.A., LL.B., J. C. Frankenstein, Dr. Hamilton, M.A., J. Squair, B.A., Wm. Houston, M.A., Miss Eliza Balmer, B.A., J. A. Ferguson, G. I. Riddel, B.A., and Arnoldus Miller, M.A.

³At the time of the founding of the Association Mr. Fraser was French and German master at Upper Canada College. In 1887 he was appointed lecturer in Italian and Spanish at University College where he rose, by 1902, to the position of professor in his department. He was an unusually accomplished linguist. His students, of whom the writer was one, will remember him chiefly for the peculiar form of his wit, often bordering on the sardonic, and his great merits as a teacher.

The following glowing tribute was paid to his memory on the occasion of his death by the members of the Modern Language Section (originally named, as we have seen, the Modern Language Association of Ontario) at the annual meeting in 1917:

earliest missionaries in the province to spread the gospel of the newer doctrines in modern language teaching. He expounded sympathetically before the members of the Association the theories and practices of the reform movement, and applied some of its principles both in his own class work and in the French and German high school grammars, of which he was joint author with Professor Squair in the one case and Professor Van der Smitten in the other.

The Modern Language Association of Ontario was not merely or primarily an academic organization, although the discussion of literary and theoretical subjects was an important part of its programme, but was deeply concerned with the practical aspects of modern language teaching. Hence the deliberations of the Association were in a large degree devoted to problems of methodology and questions affecting the centrally prescribed curriculum and regulations, which determined the character of the French and German courses.

That the Association was from its very inception (as it has continued to be to the present time) vitally interested in the practical problems that confronted the teacher in the daily routine of the class-room was instanced by the reading, at the early meetings of the organization,

"That this Modern Language Section of the Ontario Educational Association has learned with the most sincere regret of the summons by death of one of its oldest and most faithful members, Professor W. H. Fraser.

"Professor Fraser was for many years a member of the executive, having fulfilled the exacting duties of secretary for five years and also occupied the position of president in the earlier days of the Association. The section has lost in Professor Fraser one whose judgment rarely led him astray and one who had strong convictions and whose courage was always equal to his convictions. He was a friend of education through a sense of duty, and never spared himself in any work that could further the work of his department in the university or the interests of the Modern Language Section of the Ontario Educational Association. He had ideas born of reflection and experience and was always ready to contribute something of value to our meetings. We shall miss his dry humour and his valuable counsel."

of papers on topics such as the following, most of which also reflected the trend of the newer theories of language teaching that were rapidly gaining currency: 1886, "Methods of Teaching Moderns to Beginners"; 1887, "The Natural Method of Teaching Languages", "The Ear and Eye in Modern Language Teaching"; 1889, "Elementary Teaching in French and German", "Applied Phonetics", and similar papers.

Perhaps the greatest service done by the Association to the cause of modern language instruction in the province was its sustained and energetic effort to bring about needed changes in the regulations and programmes affecting the study of French and German (as well as English). The key-note was struck at the very first meeting when a series of resolutions was passed calling for certain reforms. The Association was not to be a debating society. It was a virile organization and in combative mood, bent on redressing existing wrongs. A number of the improvements effected in the modern language curriculum and in the character of the final examinations during the eighties and nineties (as well as subsequently) were instituted as a result of the propaganda carried on by the Association and the resolutions adopted at its meetings. No projected legislative measures bearing on the study of modern languages escaped the vigilance of that body.

Their criticism was directed mainly against the nature and mode of conduct of the external examinations and the curricula and text-books prescribed. The question of the examinations in modern languages was raised at the first meeting of the Association and continued to engage the attention of the body for many years. Three objectionable phases of the subject were discussed and resolutions calling for reforms were passed. In the first place,

fault was found with the scale of values assigned to modern languages at the University matriculation examinations, and the authorities were petitioned to increase these values (1886 and 1889). Secondly, a greater degree of uniformity in the style of the French and German departmental and matriculation tests respectively was called for (1886 and 1889), and thirdly, a number of resolutions were adopted with respect to sight translation. The first resolution on the last named subject, passed in 1889, requested that "unseen passages in French, German, and English should form part of the work at all university and departmental examinations in these subjects". Five years later after sight passages had been made part of these examinations, the Association asked "that the words in the regulations respecting help to be given by the examiner in sight translation be omitted." A resolution proposed in 1899, calling for the substitution of sight translation for the prescribed authors on the matriculation papers, however, failed to carry. The character, too, of the questions on the French and German examinations came in for criticism. One type of question in particular, that on theoretical grammar,¹ which had not yet disappeared from the modern language papers, was deprecated by speakers at a number of the sessions. That the majority of the members of the Association did not fully accord with this view is, however, manifest from the fact that a resolution favouring the discontinuance of such questions was lost (1894). Among the examination reforms suggested by the Association one was especially significant (although it was rejected by the senate of the University), namely, the institution of oral tests in matriculation French and German for all candidates presenting themselves in Toronto.

¹See page 181 ante.

The members of the Association early turned their attention to the subject of French and German text-books. In the first place, they found fault with the method of authorizing these books (1887), insisting that in the future, counsel should be taken with competent teachers before such authorization. Furthermore they asked that teachers should not be bound to use any authorized works, and that heads of departments (with the approval of the boards of trustees) be permitted to select those books which in their opinion were best adapted for their classes.¹ At the same meeting a resolution was passed expressing "emphatic disapproval" of De Fivas' Reader as well as the "Word Book". A partial remedy for the unsatisfactory character of the text-books was sought in a project to have an elementary French reader for use in the high schools compiled by a committee of the Association. An effort was also made early in the history of the organization to secure, for recommendation to the university authorities, a list of modern language books suitable for the matriculation examinations, and by 1898 the prestige of the Association had so far risen that the registrar of the University of Toronto consulted that body respecting projected modifications in modern language requirements for the matriculation examinations. Curricular changes contemplated or effected were always re-echoed in the discussions of the Association, and measures were frequently adopted with a view to counter-acting unfavourable regulations.

Among the subjects recurring in the discussions of the

¹A similar resolution was adopted in 1888 by the High School Section of the Ontario Teachers' Association: "That whilst we recognize the necessity of prescribing a list of books, authorized for use in forms I and II of high schools and collegiate institutes, in the opinion of this section the choice of the books to be used in the higher work—*viz.*, for junior matriculation . . . and for senior matriculation . . . —should be left to the choice of the principal and masters concerned."

Association was the status of modern languages at the University of Toronto. Here these languages continued to hold a subordinate place. The system of lectureships instituted in 1866 still persisted. There was until 1902 no full professor in Italian and Spanish in the arts faculty of the University of Toronto and no professors in French and German at University College. Nor was adequate recognition given to these studies in the other universities of the province. Inspector Seath at one of the meetings (1889) of the Association, of which he was at the time president, strongly deplored the unfavourable position of modern languages in these institutions.¹ At his suggestion the senate of the University of Toronto was petitioned to institute certain reforms in these subjects, and on another occasion a memorial was submitted by the Association to the Ontario government, setting forth the inferior position held at the provincial university by teachers of modern languages. Of the effect of the various resolutions adopted at different times by the Association, either giving expression to grievances or calling for reforms, more will be said in the course of the present discussion.

¹That modern languages were still on the defensive in the university curriculum was well illustrated by an article, apologetic in tone, which appeared about this time in the *Canada Educational Monthly* (1889, Vol. XI, No. 6), from the pen of John Squair. The writer tries to show, among other things, that French is as valuable as Latin as a mental discipline: "It is often supposed that the modern languages of Europe are less perfect instruments of mental training than the ancient languages, because they have not such highly developed systems of inflection. But it will be difficult to show that the consideration of the various uses of the preposition *à* will not require as much careful thinking as the consideration of the various uses of the dative case in Latin. Or the mastering of the French subjunctive, why should it be considered so much less useful than the mastering of the Latin subjunctive? It cannot be held that the laws of French grammar are less rigid than those of Latin." (p. 206)

Formal discipline was invoked by educationists in defence of a great many things. In 1885 Inspector Hodgson wrote, "That analysis and parsing are eminently useful exercises as a means of training the logical faculty, no one will dispute."

The organization of the Ontario secondary schools was substantially fixed by the early eighties. The two types of schools, the high schools and collegiate institutes, differing only as regards the quality of their equipment and the size and qualifications of their staffs, followed identical curricula, and offered the same courses of instruction. They purported to serve a three-fold educational purpose, *viz.*, to prepare candidates for the various matriculation examinations, to educate intending teachers in preparation for their professional training, and lastly, to give a general education to pupils purposing to follow industrial, agricultural, or mercantile pursuits. In effect, however, it was almost exclusively the needs of the first two classes of pupils that determined the courses of instruction. The examination requirements of these pupils, then, virtually conditioned the curricula of the schools.

Thus in spite of the abolition of the system of payment by results, external examinations continued, as they have to this day, to exert a dominant influence on secondary education. In the modern language course they fixed not only the content of the programme but to a large degree also the methods of instruction.

The yoke of the examinations was a heavy one and the high school teachers groaned bitterly under it. Its weight oppressed them and thwarted the true purpose of education. The examinations were as numerous as they were varied. There were, to begin with, several types of entrance examinations conducted by each of the arts faculties of the universities in the province. Then there were separate examinations for candidates seeking admission into the various learned professions. In addition to these, the intermediate examination of 1876 had survived, though the payment to the schools on the results of this

examination had, as was noted in the preceding chapter, been discontinued. Moreover, besides the intermediate, the education department conducted separate examinations for the several grades of teachers' non-professional certificates. Since the requirements for these various kinds of tests sometimes differed considerably, the energies of the modern language teacher, as also those of his colleagues teaching the other subjects of the curriculum, were taxed to the utmost. Demands for the unification of the various types of examinations were made repeatedly by the secondary school teachers of the province including, as has been noted, the members of the Modern Language Association.

Partial relief was obtained in 1885 by the assimilation of some of the departmental examinations to those of the University of Toronto, and two years later a further step was taken when the matriculation examinations of the University were consolidated with the third and fourth form high school examinations conducted by the education department. Still greater co-ordination of the examination system was effected in the nineties by the creation of a Joint Board of Examiners whose functions were later taken over by the Educational Council, consisting of representatives of the University of Toronto and the education department. Meanwhile, too, the federation¹ of a number of the provincial colleges with the University of Toronto had taken place, and thus the entrance requirements were still further unified. By a gradual evolution then, the steps of which need not be traced here, the several types of high school leaving examinations in modern languages were gradually co-ordinated and their conduct entrusted to one central body, and the university matriculation examination in French and German became the

¹The Federation Act was passed in 1887 and became effective two years later.

accepted standard for admission to higher institutions of learning. Thus one of the objectionable features attaching to the outside examinations was gradually removed.

Other objectionable phases of the examination system, however, persisted, and the efforts of those who were bent on reforms in modern languages were directed, in a large measure, to bring about further improvements in the nature of the examinations and the requirements for them. We have already noted two characteristics of the question papers in French and German to which exception was taken by members of the Modern Language Association, *viz.*, the prominence given to questions on abstract grammar and the absence of sight translation from some of the examinations. The latter deficiency was remedied the year after the Association submitted its resolution on the subject, for in 1890 "translation of unspecified passages from easy French (and German) authors" is given for the first time in the calendar of the University of Toronto as a requirement for the junior matriculation examination in these languages (in the honor matriculation examination sight translation had been required in French as early as 1878, and at least as early as 1886 in German), and the high school regulations of that year specify "sight reading" as part of the French course.¹ As regards questions on theoretical grammar, these tended to diminish in number and disappear from the examination papers as time went on, recurring toward

¹See Report of the Minister of Education, 1890, p. 98. The following explanatory note is given (p. 101) with respect to sight translation: "At all the examinations each paper on . . . French and German authors shall contain, in addition to questions on passages from the prescribed texts, questions on passages from works not prescribed, but similar in style and of equal difficulty . . . The meaning shall be given of words not likely to have been met with by the candidates (see p. 196 ante), and the examinations in the 'sight-work' shall determine, not whether the candidate has read more than the prescribed texts, but whether he is familiar with the idioms and constructions met with in the prescribed course."

the end of the nineties, only occasionally in atavistic fashion, and vanishing completely by the close of that decade.

In spite of the reforms instituted in the examination system and the improvements in the character of the French and German question papers, the examinations tended to exert (as they have to this day) an unwholesome influence on the teaching of modern languages in the schools. The attitude, described in the preceding chapter, of rating all scholastic advancement solely by the standard of the examinations persisted, and very naturally so, since success in these was not only the student's crowning achievement but seemed to be the only achievement that really mattered. The examination—whether the matriculation or the teacher's non-professional—was the goal striven for. A dualism of theory and practice was the result (a situation that has not yet disappeared) even in the case of proficient teachers. On the one hand, the newer theories in modern language instruction were being promulgated by the School of Pedagogy or the Normal College and the Modern Language Association and, on the other hand, the examination requirements set a premium on adherence to the traditional practices.

Hence attention to French and German pronunciation was far from being general.* Inspector Seath, like his predecessors, deplored this deficiency and traced it to the demands made by the final examinations. Reporting on the high schools in 1885, he wrote:

"Too little importance is attached to pronunciation . . . I have inspected schools in which the teachers have told me that they pay little or no attention to the subject; it does not pay at the examinations, and their time is fully taken up with the grammar, composition, and translation, which do pay. For this defect the teacher cannot be held wholly responsible . . . The public, too, has been trained to gauge a teacher's merits by

his examination successes . . . It is unfortunate, I may add, that at the university matriculation examinations more value is not attached to the oral reading of . . . moderns."¹

Four years later, after the formation of the Modern Language Association and the introduction of a system of secondary school teacher training, the complaint was reiterated by Mr. Seath:

"Insufficient attention is still paid to the oral reading of . . . French and German . . . So long as the written examination is the first consideration, the . . . defect will exist; but the time is coming, I hope, when this subject also can be tested at the local centres."²

And again in 1900:

"The prospect of an examination held by outside examiners turns the pupils' and the teacher's attention from the subject to the examination. The subject acquires a significance not belonging to itself, and a wrong ideal of education is set up for the pupil, the teacher, the trustee, and the general public . . . Under an examination system, that counts most on which examination questions can be put . . . It is impossible to hold an oral examination in the languages at the different centres. The consequence is that in very many of our schools little attention is paid to the pronunciation, and in many places, indeed, almost none. I have heard pupils who have been two or three or even four years at French and German, for example, make about as many blunders and read with as little fluency as a pupil who had been at the subject only a few months."³

And by way of summary the inspector refers to "the neglect of pronunciation" as "probably the chief defect of our language teaching." Speaking before the College and High School Section of the Ontario Educational Association in 1902, he repeated the complaint: "As to

¹See Report of Minister of Education, 1885, p. 156.

²See Report of Minister of Education, 1889, p. 191.

³*Ibid*, 1900, p. 251.

the languages, the neglect of pronunciation is a most glaring and far too general a defect . . . the pronunciation of French is generally poor, even in the highest forms . . . The examination octopus, with its far-reaching tentacles, is, of course, chiefly to blame."

Other defects, too, in modern language instruction were noted by the inspector, defects which were not, however, due to limitations inhering in the examinations themselves, but rather to the character of the question papers. The other shortcomings according to the inspector were indifference to "the English of the translations, the meaning of the author, and the connection of the author's thoughts."

Both Inspector Seath and his colleague Inspector Hodgson were able, nevertheless, to report a number of exceptions to the all too glaring defects, born of the examination system, in the teaching of French and German. The newer tenets of modern language instruction were making inroads into the complacency of the traditional doctrines and here and there found expression, in spite of the examinations, in progressive methods of language teaching. Thus Inspector Seath in 1887 commended highly the practice, employed by a few of the best teachers, of eliminating text-books in the elementary stages of French and German; and two years later Inspector Hodgson reported increasing use of "dictation and conversation as a means of familiarizing the pupils with the pronunciation of the languages and with their colloquial idioms," although he was by no means satisfied with the extent to which *viva voce* French and German were employed. That the improvement in the teaching of these languages was none the less real was borne out also by Inspector Seath who reported "very marked progress . . . in the character of the work done in . . . French and

German" despite the many defects that still persisted in consequence of the examinations.

Inspector Seath had no inconsiderable share himself in advancing the cause of modern language study in Ontario by helping to disseminate the newer theories of language teaching. His interest in these was kept alive by his close connection, for a number of years, with the Modern Language Association, of which he was, as already indicated, not only one of the original members but one of the first presidents and a councillor for two further consecutive years (1889-1890, 1890-1891).¹ We have already noted his criticism of the subordinate status of modern languages at the universities. The extent to which he was under the sway of the new ideology was illustrated also by his statement in 1887 of the proper aims in the study of French and German. It was a profession of faith worthy of the most zealous modern language reformer of the time. To quote, "The main object of a course in French and German . . . is, I take it, to acquire proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing the languages." It follows from this that "in the elementary stages of French and German the pupil's energies should be directed mainly to dictation and written and oral composition. Not only should the eye be cultivated; the ear and the tongue also should be early accustomed to the sounds of the foreign language."² In 1902 he advised high school teachers to make the work in the elementary stages of French "wholly oral, without a text-book and without homework".³ Seath favoured beginning the

¹Just prior to his appointment as high school inspector Seath had been for two years modern language editor of the *Canada Educational Monthly*. See Squair, *John Seath*, pp. 44 and 45.

²See Report of Minister of Education, 1887, p. 171.

³Address before the College and High School Section of the O.E.A., April 3, 1902.

study of modern languages at an earlier age than was customary.¹ Though he remained steadfast in his advocacy of progressive methods of instruction in French and German, his conception of the aim of teaching these languages underwent a change toward the end of his inspectorial career. In contradiction to his own former views, he now differed with those who held that a conversational knowledge of French and German was one of the chief objects of the high school course in these languages. "The ability to converse in French or German," he wrote in 1890,² "is for us of secondary importance." The true object, he now argued, was scholarship and literary culture. The schools, he said, could not give enough time to modern languages to insure proficiency in their colloquial use, and even if it were possible to secure fluency in spoken French and German, he maintained, "it would not now be of practical value to one in five hundred."

Meanwhile some modifications had been made in the modern language curriculum. These were, however, comparatively slight, for the reforms introduced during the period were in the main internal reforms resulting from the refinement of methods and the improvements of text-books in response to the spread of the newer theories. The external requirements were not materially altered. The most noteworthy additions to the curriculum, specified in the course of study of 1890, were dictation and sight reading. The parallel tabulation, given in table 24, of the programmes in French (and German) as prescribed in 1876, 1885, and 1890 (the latter remained effective until 1904) shows the nature of the changes that were made, in the course of a quarter of a century, in the

¹This weakness of our language teaching has not yet been remedied.

²See Report of Minister of Education, 1900, p. 269.

requirements set by the department of education. Since the programme in German was similar to that in French, only the latter is given. Nor are the authors specified, as these varied within each period from year to year.

TABLE 24—FRENCH CURRICULA OF 1876, 1885, AND 1890.

1876	1885	1890
The accidence and the principal rules of syntax; exercises; <i>Introductory and Advanced French Reader</i> ; re-translation of easy passages into French; rudiments of conversation.	<i>The Elementary French Book</i> , grammar, composition, and the texts prescribed from time to time by the Education Department.	<i>The Elementary French Book</i> ¹ , grammar, composition, conversation, dictation, the prescribed texts, and sight reading.

With reference to modern language authors read in the schools, the new tendency noted in the preceding chapter became fixed in the eighties as regards French and thereafter also in respect of German. The French and German classical authors passed out of the programme of studies and their places were taken by modern writers. Corneille and Racine and Voltaire made way for Souvestre and Scribe and Daudet, and Lessing and Schiller and Goethe were supplanted by Benedix and Baumbach and Seidel, to mention only a few of the modern authors that were introduced.

There were changes also in the French and German grammars authorized for use in the high schools. De Fivas' *Grammaire des Grammaires* which had held the field since 1866² was superseded in 1891 by a French grammar, brought out by two Ontario scholars, which

¹The *Elementary French Book* was replaced in 1895 by the *High School French Reader*.

²De Fivas' grammar had been supplemented at various times by other textbooks, such as Haas, *Introduction to the French Language*, Pué, *First French Book* and others. In 1887 Seath recommended the use of the latter book or Fasquelle, *Lessons in French* for the introductory stages of the French course. (Report of the Minister of Education, 1887, pp. 170 f.)

reflected in some degree the newer spirit in language instruction and which, in its several editions, was destined to enjoy even greater longevity than the "Grammar of French Grammars."

Fraser and Squair's *Ontario High School French Grammar*,¹ the first edition of which appeared in 1891, represented, even in its original form, a noticeable advance over its predecessors. The earlier grammarians would have thrown up their hands in utter consternation at its overt flouting of the traditional sequence of lessons, for the new grammar abandoned the logical for the psychological order. Instead of arranging the various topics in accordance with the time-honoured plan,—article, noun, adjective, pronoun, etc.—and completing the treatment of each topic before proceeding to the next following, the Fraser and Squair book dealt with each subject as the need for it was thought to arise. Hence we find so unorthodox a combination in the selfsame lesson as the past definite of verbs, personal pronoun objects, and interrogative adjectives. The French and the English exercises for translation at the end of each lesson, though, like those of the earlier grammars, consisting of disconnected sentences, were free from the glaring incongruities and sheer nonsense that characterized the exercises of some of the older text-books. In still another respect the new grammar differed from all its predecessors, namely in its scientific treatment of French sounds and in its representation of these by means of a phonetic alphabet. This feature was retained, with many refinements, in all subsequent editions of the book.

The second edition which appeared in 1900 was essentially a new work. In many respects it excelled the

¹It was the first French grammar of native authorship to be used in the high schools.

earlier grammar as much as the latter had surpassed its predecessors. The most important innovation was the substitution of topical French texts, dealing for the most part with various aspects of French life, for the disjointed sentences of the 1891 edition. The English exercises for translation into French, however, continued to be of the disconnected type. Still another change was the introduction of the phonetic symbols of the *Association Phonétique Internationale*, which replaced the older method of representing the sounds of the French words. Later editions of the work retained the two improved features described.

The excellence of the Fraser and Squair grammar has been attested by the two and a half million copies that have been printed and by its adoption in a number of English-speaking countries outside of Canada. But despite the many merits of this text-book, it was essentially a grammar of the conservative type and helped to fasten upon the schools of the province the traditional grammar-translation method of learning modern languages.

The publication of a German grammar of Canadian authorship preceded that of the French by three years. Of this also W. H. Fraser was one of the joint authors. The other collaborator of the German book was W. H. Van der Smitten. The *Ontario High School German Grammar* which was brought out in 1888 was authorized for use in Ontario until 1909, when it was replaced by a vastly superior grammar by the same authors which remained on the prescribed list up to 1925.¹

¹Van der Smitten and Fraser's work was the fourth German grammar to be prescribed in Ontario. When German was first put on the high school programme in 1871, Ahn's *German Grammar* was the prescribed text-book. It was supplemented in 1877 by Otto's *German Conversation Grammar*, and both were superseded in the eighties by Aue's *German Grammar*.

Throughout the period under discussion (as well as before and after) modern languages were optional studies in the high school general course. But this course was largely only a theoretical one, since the subjects pursued were in effect, as was pointed out before, determined almost entirely by the requirements of the matriculation and teachers' non-professional examinations, and not by the needs of the large body of students that was headed neither for the university nor for the vocation of teaching. Since the goal of the latter class was uncertain,—for might they not after all alter their tentative decision and seek admission into the university or the teaching profession?—, and out of considerations of economy and ease of administration, the courses at the high schools were organized with an eye to the requirements of intending matriculants or potential teachers. The latter class was evidently the more numerous.

The result was a fluctuation in the proportion of students in Latin, French and German, corresponding to whether or not these subjects were required or allowed as options for the matriculation or the teachers' non-professional examinations. Thus the enrolments in French and German (as well as in Latin) were saved from a threatened decline, after the middle eighties, by the issuance of new departmental regulations which gave recognition to these subjects at the examinations for teachers.¹

The marked rise in the French and German enrolments in the nineties was chiefly due to changes, as regards these studies, in the requirements for junior matriculation, following the creation about this time of associate-professorships in modern languages in the

¹See Seath's report in the Report of the Minister of Education, 1885, p. 155.

University of Toronto and University College and the heightened recognition by the university authorities of the value of these studies.

Prior to 1885 modern languages were purely voluntary subjects for the great majority of junior matriculation candidates; for although referred to in the calendars of the University as "optional", French and German could not, except in the case of students proceeding to certain honour degrees, be selected in lieu of any other subjects. These students, it will be recalled,¹ were permitted to substitute French and German for Greek. In 1885 and for six years thereafter this privilege was allowed also to students entering any of the pass courses. From 1891 to 1895 the list of elective studies for pass candidates was extended and still greater encouragement was given to the study of modern languages. One of the following groups was now required in addition to the obligatory subjects, *viz.*, (a) Greek, (b) French and German, (c) French and either physics or chemistry. Furthermore, candidates purposing to take honour courses at the university in political science, mathematics and physics, chemistry and minerology, natural science, philosophy, or oriental languages were advised in the regulations to take both French and German. At the senior matriculation examination candidates were allowed options similar to those of the junior matriculation examination.

But neither language was compulsory until 1896. Between that year and 1900 an examination in either French or German was made obligatory on all matriculation candidates. Thus for the brief space of four years a modern language enjoyed the distinction, never before or since accorded it, of being adjudged of equal importance

¹See p. 176 ante.

with Latin for the purpose of the matriculation examination. In 1900 French or German ceased to be obligatory and were again included among a number of optional subjects (Greek, French, German, and experimental science), any two of which could be taken.

Meanwhile the matriculation course had been adopted for the higher grade of teachers' non-professional certificates. The result was a powerful incentive to linguistic studies in the schools, especially during the period of 1896-1899.

TABLE 25—ENROLMENT IN FRENCH AND GERMAN BETWEEN 1883 AND 1904.

Year	Enrolment			P.C. of Total Enrolment in	
	Total	French	German	French	German
1883	11,843	5318	961	44.90	8.11
1884	12,737	5119	1089	40.19	8.54
1885	14,250	5528	1111	38.80	7.80
1886	15,344	5379	1172	35.06	7.64
1887	17,459	6180	1350	35.40	7.73
1888	17,742	6785	1580	38.13	8.91
1889	18,642	6753	1709	36.22	9.17
1890	19,395	7837	2212	40.41	11.41
1891	22,230	9319	2311	41.92	10.39
1892	22,837	10,398	2796	45.53	12.24
1893	23,055	10,482	2854	45.46	12.38
1894	23,523	10,530	2785	44.76	11.84
1895	24,662	11,866	3464	48.11	14.04
1896	24,567	13,374	4503	54.44	18.33
1897	24,390	13,761	5169	56.43	21.19
1898	23,301	13,866	6288	59.58	26.98
1899	22,460	13,464	5513	59.95	24.55
1900	21,723	12,650	3894	58.24	17.93
1901	22,523	13,024	3065	57.82	13.61
1902	24,472	13,595	3280	55.55	13.41
1903	25,722	14,522	3229	56.46	12.55
1904	27,709	16,039	3274	57.88	11.81

The effect of the new regulations on the enrolment, as shown by table 25 and fig. 11, was direct and pronounced. The attendance in French and German responded in

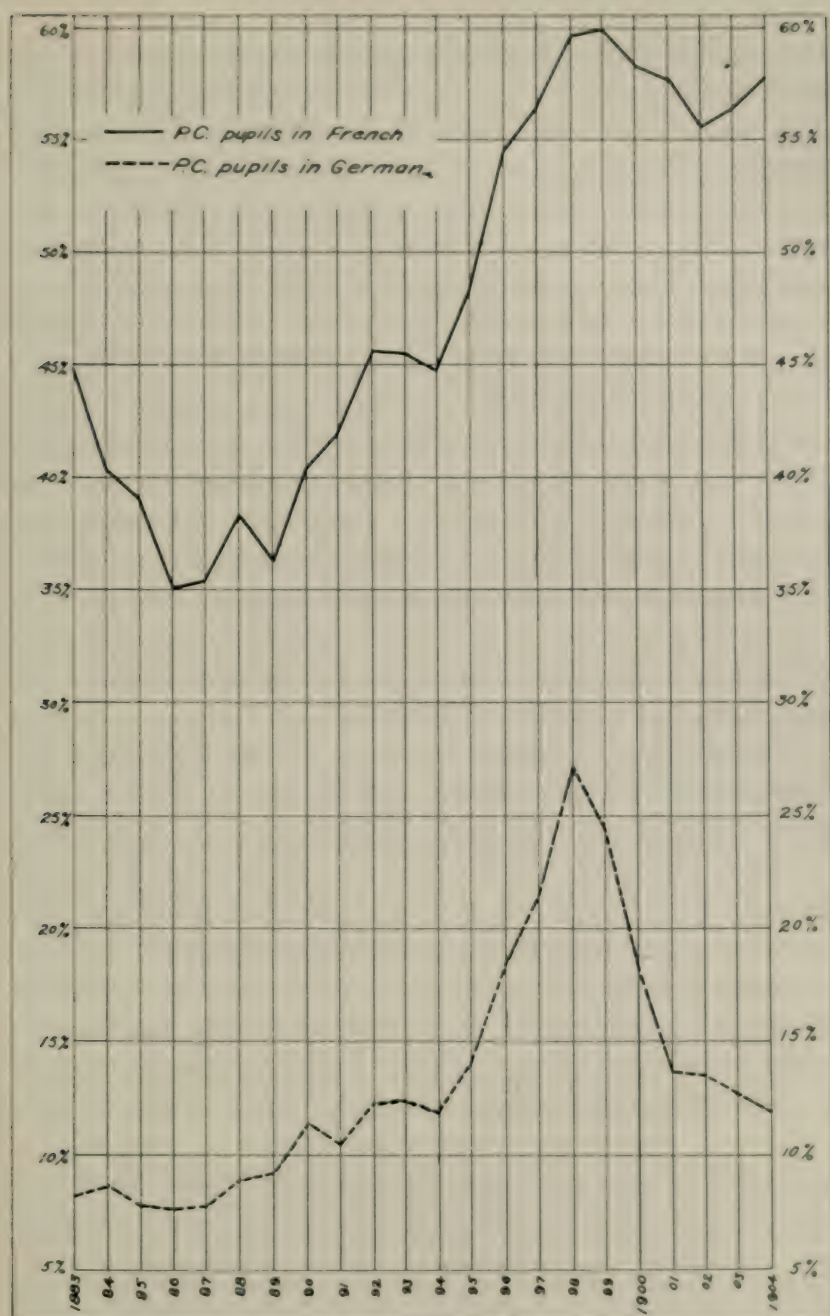


Fig. 11.—EFFECT OF REGULATIONS ON ATTENDANCE IN FRENCH AND GERMAN BETWEEN 1883 AND 1904

barometric fashion to the changes in the curriculum. The first considerable rise in the French registration occurred after 1891, as a result of the admission of French and German as options for the matriculation examinations. In 1889 there were 6722 high school pupils, that is 36 per cent. of the total number enrolled, studying the former language. Three years later their numbers had grown to 10,398 or more than 45 per cent. of the total. At the same time the enrolment in German was affected only slightly. The study of both languages was, however, powerfully advanced when the curriculum of 1896 went into effect. There was a rapid influx of pupils into the French and German classes, culminating in 1899 (the year before the compulsory study of a modern language was discontinued) when their respective enrolments constituted 60 per cent. and $24\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of all the students in attendance. Thereafter a decline set in, slight as regards French, but pronounced in the case of German.

The study of the latter language had attained its peak in 1898, with an attendance of 6288 pupils, representing 27 per cent. of the entire registration, an attendance that has never since been reached in the secondary schools of Ontario, both in respect to the absolute number and the per cent. of pupils in the subject.¹ The rapid falling off in German beginning with the nineties was due to a number of causes. Chief among these was, of course, the discontinuance in 1899 of compulsory French or German as a matriculation requirement and the change in the regula-

¹The largest German enrolment in the collegiate institutes and high schools of the province in more recent times was during the first year of the Great War, when this subject was studied by 5396 pupils or nearly 15% of the total attendance. The highest per cent. enrolment in German since the beginning of the century was reached in 1911, *viz.*, 15.58%. The number of pupils pursuing this study in the continuation schools has been insignificant, not exceeding 3% of the whole registration.

tions noted above, whereby these languages along with Greek and experimental science became optional subjects, any two of which might be chosen. Now the growing importance of science made this study not only desirable but necessary for admission into several courses, with the result that for many students the choice resolved itself into one between French and German, since Greek had all but ceased to be demanded as an entrance requirement. Under the circumstances, then, French was naturally selected by the great majority of pupils. It had struck firmer root in the high school curriculum than German and was moreover easier to learn than the latter language.

The decrease in the German enrolment after 1899 was naturally accompanied by a falling off in the number of high schools teaching the subject. There had been a steady accession to the schools giving instruction in this language until in 1899 all but four of the 130 high schools and collegiate institutes in operation taught German.¹ Thereafter a decline set in, so that at the end of the period under discussion there were thirty-one schools from whose programmes this study was omitted. Such was the effect of the new curriculum.

The power of departmental regulations and the extreme tendency to uniformity of programme in a centralized system like Ontario's was strikingly exemplified in the case of Latin, which also showed that the high school course was organized chiefly with a view to the requirements of the teachers' examinations.

After 1870, for reasons discussed in a previous chapter, there had been a sudden fall in the Latin attendance,² the

¹Throughout the period under review German was in the curriculum of practically every collegiate institute, there being in no year more than one such school where this language was not taught.

²See fig. 12 on p. 244.

number of students in this subject diminishing in two years from 90 to 48 per cent. of the total enrolment. This initial rapid drop was followed by a more gradual decline, though at times not without a suggestion of ability to rally. By 1887 (see table 26) the registration in Latin had

TABLE 26—EFFECT OF REGULATIONS ON ENROLMENT IN LATIN BETWEEN 1883 AND 1904.

Year	Enrolment		P.C. in Latin
	Total	Latin	
1883	11,843	4439	37.48
1884	12,737	4454	34.96
1885	14,250	4937	34.64
1886	15,344	4954	32.28
1887	17,459	5409	30.98
1888	17,742	6099	34.37
1889	18,642	6645	35.64
1890	19,395	7114	36.73
1891	22,230	8488	38.18
1892	22,837	9006	39.44
1893	23,055	8918	38.64
1894	23,523	9366	39.82
1895	24,662	12,589	51.05
1896	24,567	15,526	63.16
1897	24,390	16,873	69.18
1898	23,301	19,319	82.91
1899	22,460	19,131	85.18
1900	21,723	18,073	83.19
1901	22,523	19,029	84.48
1902	24,472	18,884	77.16
1903	25,722	18,831	73.21
1904	27,709	19,409	70.04

dwindled down to 31 per cent. of the total, the lowest mark attained since 1855, nor ever subsequently approximated. After 1887, when the departmental and university examinations were partially assimilated, the attendance in this language was materially bolstered up, and with the fuller consolidation of the two types examinations, whereby in 1896 Latin became compulsory for teachers'

certificates,¹ this language assumed an importance in the high school programme equalled only in the days of "qualifying Latin" during the period of 1866-1870. The result was a phenomenal increase in the number of students learning this language, culminating in 1899 in a proportional enrolment never since exceeded and falling short only by ten per cent. of the highest level reached during the heyday of Latin more than thirty years earlier. The gradual decline after 1899 was evidently anticipatory of the projected curricular changes which were effected in 1904 and which will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER XII

THE LAST PHASE

(1904-1928)

The new programme of studies and regulations which were published in 1904 had been before the country for a number of years. They were heralded by the department of education as ushering in reforms of great moment, and hopes ran high. A new panacea had been discovered for the manifold educational ills.

In the sphere of secondary education the revised regulations were aimed to counteract the excessive unification of the courses of study and the undue pressure of examinations. They succeeded in neither, or at most to only a slight degree. For despite the introduction of an imposing array of courses (eight in number: general, commercial, manual training, household science, art, agriculture, matriculation, and teachers' non-professional

¹See Inspector Seath's report in the Report of the Minister of Education, 1900, p. 255.

courses), the high school curricula continued to be organized almost exclusively with a view to the needs of prospective matriculants and teachers; and the new examinations, which were, except in the languages, henceforth to be distinct for these two classes of students, determined in the main, as they had before, the content of the school programme and the methodology of instruction. Among other changes, the new regulations officially lengthened the high school course to five years,¹ divided into three main divisions and designated respectively as lower, middle, and upper schools.

How did the languages fare in the re-organized high school curriculum? Their status was unaffected except in the teachers' courses. These were to be of two kinds, leading respectively to the junior (second class) non-professional certificate, based on the work of the middle school, and the senior (first class) non-professional certificate for which the upper school course was the basis.² Latin which had been required, as was noted in the preceding chapter, for teachers' certificates since 1896, was now made compulsory for the senior non-professional examination only, but was allowed also as a bonus subject for the junior teachers' examination. As for French and German, they were entirely withdrawn from the latter examination and became optional for the senior non-professional certificate.

It was the intention of the new curriculum to stress those studies in the courses for teachers which had a direct bearing on the work taught in the public schools. Hence the languages were to be largely sacrificed for more

¹In practice the larger schools had been organized on a basis of five forms even before the new regulations went into effect. See Report of the Minister of Education, 1900, p. 263.

²There was to be also a district non-professional certificate, but valid only in certain districts and only with the special approval of the minister of education.

intensive work in English, history, mathematics, and similar subjects of direct concern to the public school teacher.

A partial exception was, however, made in the case of Latin, which, as already stated, was retained as a compulsory subject for intending first class teachers and as a bonus for second class teachers' examinations. To allow modern languages to count similarly was in the opinion of the minister of education indefensible. "Latin", he argued, "is generally recognized to be far superior as a disciplinary subject to either of the modern languages, and, therefore, neither French nor German is entitled to the same recognition."¹

It is not surprising that the modern language teachers viewed the new regulations with considerable alarm and saw in them a grave menace to the successful teaching of French and German in the high schools of the province. Not only had these languages been discontinued as options for the junior certificate, so that teachers complained, but they were not effective options even in the senior examination, since chemistry and mineralogy were likely to be chosen instead. To quote one of the speakers at the 1906 session of the Modern Language Association:

As the teachers' course determines to a great extent the work of the schools outside of the larger cities, and as the principals try to arrange the time-table so as to have as few classes as possible, the unfavourable position given French and German means that few candidates for teachers' certificates will take these languages under present conditions. This means less time allotted for these languages in the schools, and hence an inferior grade of work done.²

¹See Report of the Minister of Education for 1903, p. XIV.

²From a summary of an address by G. L. Macdonald of the Ingersoll (now of the London Central) Collegiate Institute in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, 1906, p. 171.

Accordingly the Modern Language Association in a memorial to the education department urged the claims of French and German, contending that for many students "language study is a more effective means of mental culture than science study." But the fears of the profession proved unfounded, for as a matter of fact the French and German enrolments did not suffer in consequence of the new regulations. This is probably ascribable to the incentive given to the pursuit of these studies by the matriculation requirements of 1905-06 which strongly advised candidates to select modern languages for their options.

The programme of studies issued in 1904 was characterized by minuteness of prescription. Thus the French and German curricula were given in detail, and there were advocated, particularly in the early stages of the work, highly progressive methods of instruction. The course outlined for the lower school was an epitome of the direct method. The syllabus of studies in modern languages follows:

Lower School; The elementary French and German books, including introductory work in authors.

Note.—The work in French should at first be wholly without a text-book, for the training of the ear and tongue; grammar learned incidentally. Names of common objects, states, and actions. Memorization of suitable selections from simple poetry. Reading anecdotes, short stories, and easy descriptions, with oral drill on the material read. After three or four months the systematic study of the elementary book should be begun, the work being chiefly oral. German should be begun in the same way the second year, but with greater apportionment of time, and more rapid progress. When desired, German may be begun first, being followed by French.

Middle School; Course in the lower school continued. The special study of the texts prescribed for the pass junior matriculation into the University of Toronto, with sight reading.

Upper School, Course of the middle school in grammar and composition continued. The special study of the authors prescribed for honours at matriculation into the University of Toronto, with sight work.

These regulations remained in force, with only insignificant variations in wording, for fifteen years, and have been only slightly modified more recently with regard to the lower school work. The modern language course has thus practically remained unchanged from 1905, when the new regulations became effective, to the present time.

The history of education in Ontario during this period may conveniently be divided into three parts: first, the decade preceding the Great War; second, the period of the war; and third, the years following the war.

The creation of continuation schools was an important development of the first period. These schools grew out of the "continuation classes" which were first established in 1896 to provide a more advanced course suited for public school pupils in rural districts. Gradually this course was extended to include the subjects of the lower forms of the high school and by 1908, when the designation "continuation schools" was first used, authorization was given for the study in these schools of the third and fourth year subjects of the high school course, and still later the pursuit of upper school studies was, under certain conditions, also sanctioned. Thus it is seen that although the continuation schools were originally established to suit the specific needs of pupils in agricultural communities, they have virtually come to be ordinary high schools situated in rural districts, whose curriculum is in no wise differentiated from that of the typical Ontario high schools. Consequently much of the discussion which follows regarding the teaching of modern

languages in these schools will also apply to the continuation schools.

In one very important respect, however, these two types of institutions are widely at variance, namely in the qualifications of the teachers. Whereas the collegiate institutes and high schools are staffed almost exclusively by university graduates¹ most of whom are specialists in the various departments, continuation school teachers have lower qualifications and their interests are not centred in any particular study. They are, too, as compared with high school teachers, less permanently rooted in their calling. The typical continuation school teacher is, as a speaker at a meeting of the Ontario Educational Association facetiously characterized him, "transient—a pedagogical tramp". The quality of the modern language instruction in these schools has, therefore, been of a lower order than in the urban secondary schools.

The questions that agitated the teachers of modern languages in the high schools during the years preceding the Great War were substantially the same as had concerned them during the period treated in the preceding chapter, namely, the subject of examinations, text-books, methodology, and similar questions. The matter of *viva voce* French and German especially was the periodic refrain in all the discussions of the Modern Language Association. The feeling was general that this phase of modern language work continued to receive inadequate attention in the schools and that in general "the present state of modern language study and teaching in the high schools" was unsatisfactory. Accordingly a memorial was addressed in 1911 to the superintendent of education, Dr.

¹Although the possession of a university degree became a necessary condition for qualification as a high school teacher only in 1920, the overwhelming majority of teachers held such degrees before then.

Seath,¹ in which the grievances of the Association were set forth at length with the urgent request for redress. The teachers asked specifically for a larger share of time in the schools for the study of French and German; for the institution in these languages of oral tests, the feasibility of which, they asserted, was proved by the example of Scottish and English schools; and lastly, for an annual government appropriation to be used toward paying the travelling expenses of teachers, to enable them to improve their oral command of French and German "by actual contact with the spoken language and the customs of the respective peoples."

The only reply of the government was the following clause appended to the 1913 syllabus for French and German and intended as an exhortation to teachers and boards of trustees:

Special importance should be attached to oral work. Teachers should improve themselves by attending suitable summer classes and by residence for a time in France and Germany. Boards should assist them, when practicable, by at least allowing them leave of absence for the latter purpose.

In 1913 fruitless representations were again made to the department of education regarding the unsatisfactory condition of modern language teaching in the province.

The outbreak of the Great War cut short demands for reforms in the schools and interrupted for a time educational theorizing. Attention was focused upon the progress of the struggle.

Certain definite effects of the war on the study of modern languages soon became apparent, the most obvious of which was the reaction against the study of German, manifested by a falling off in the enrolment of

¹With the elevation of Dr. Seath to the superintendency of education in 1906 this office, which had been abolished in 1876, was restored, though with diminished powers.

this language. This set in during the second year of the war and became increasingly pronounced in the years that followed.¹ The hatred and prejudice, born of the war, against the German people was extended also to their language. The result was that in the course of four years the German registration in the high schools dropped from 5396 to 1638, or from nearly fifteen per cent. of the total attendance to a little over five per cent. During the same period the 177 pupils who were pursuing that study in the continuation schools, at the beginning of the war, dwindled down to 48, representing a decline from three to less than one per cent. of the entire enrolment.

The war-time ebb in the German attendance was accompanied by a flow in the French. The study of the latter tongue acquired a new significance; it became more purposeful and more vital during the stress of the conflict. France was no longer regarded as a remote land extraneous to the interests of Canada. The thousands of young Canadians who had gone to France, fought there, and died there, awakened a new interest in the country and gave a new motive to the study of its language. An inverse relationship between the French and the German enrolments was the natural result. By reference to table 27 it will be seen that the ratio of the latter to the total attendance declined at approximately the same rate as the ratio of the former rose. The German registration was evidently deflected from its course and diverted into the French.

¹During the first year of the war and early in the second year the position of German was not affected. Inspector J. E. Wetherell writing in 1915 commented approvingly on this: "The study of the German language proceeds as if nothing unusual had happened. As many pupils as ever, of choice, pursue the study of German. The bias that justly prevails against the German rulers and the German people does not appear at all in the attitude of the schools toward the German language." Report of the Minister of Education, 1915, p. 34.

TABLE 27—THE EFFECT OF THE WAR ON FRENCH AND GERMAN ENROLMENTS

Year	Percentage of Total Enrolment in	
	French	German
1914	65.25	14.79
1915	68.86	11.98
1916	71.68	7.96
1917	73.18	7.55
1918	77.87	5.32

Nor did the adverse consequences to the study of the German language, engendered by the events of 1914-1918, merely synchronize with their duration. The effects have persisted long after the removal of the original motivating cause and have completely altered the normal course of the development of the study of the language in the secondary schools of Ontario. The decline in the enrolment which began in 1915 continued at a steady rate, and for nine years the process of decay manifested no signs of abatement. In the high schools, as is shown by table 28, the German registration fell off between 1914 and the school year of 1923-24 from 14.79 to 3.52 per cent. of the total, and in the continuation schools the study of the language was discontinued altogether after 1921-1922. Thus in the space of a decade the progress of half a century was wiped out, for since 1923-24 the proportion of secondary school pupils taking German to the total number enrolled has actually been slightly smaller than in 1871,¹ the year when the language was first admitted into the Ontario school curriculum; and there were only as many high schools teaching German in 1925-26 as there had been forty years earlier, although the number of secondary schools, exclusive of the vocational

¹In 1871, 3.10% of the secondary school pupils were enrolled in German; in 1923, 2.95%. The latter figure takes into account also the attendance at continuation schools.

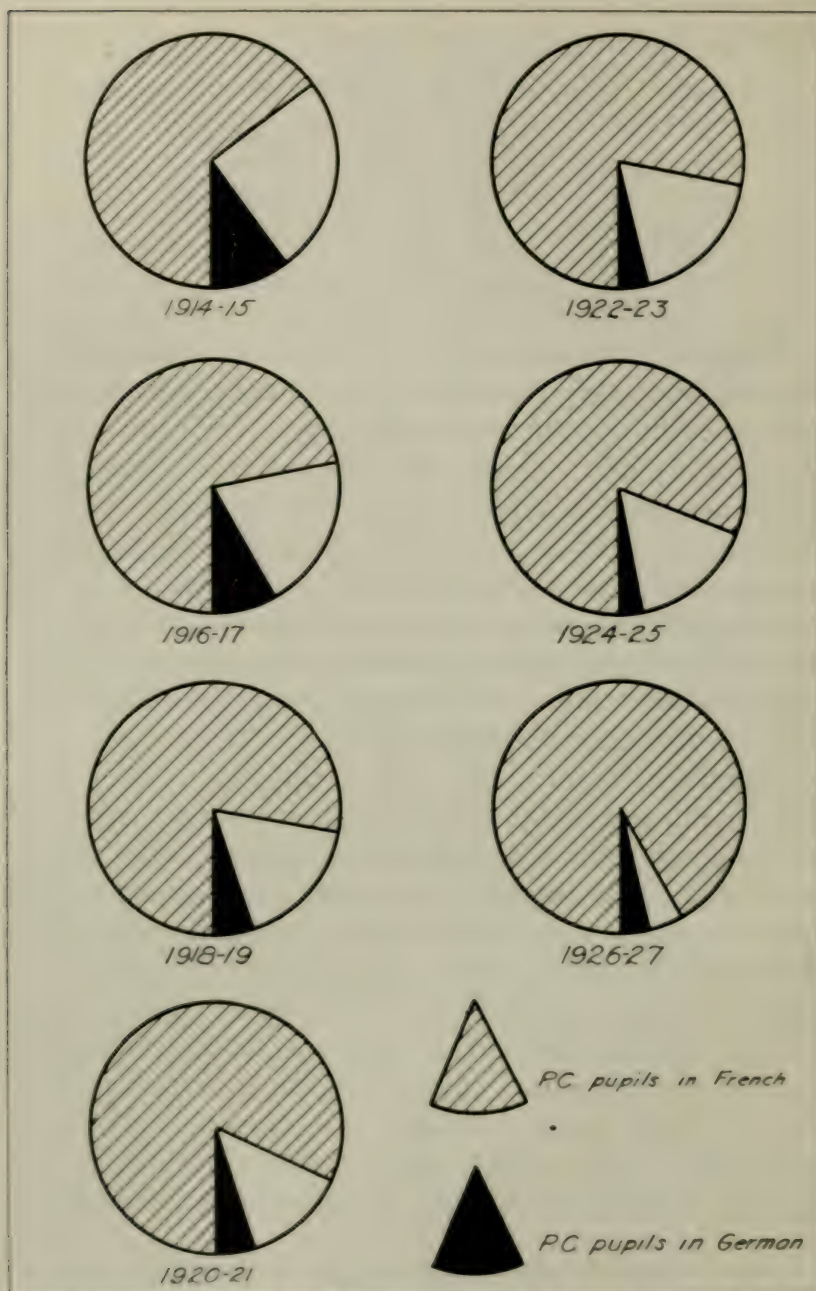


Fig. 12 — COMPARISON OF THE PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS ENROLLED IN FRENCH AND GERMAN RESPECTIVELY BETWEEN 1914 AND 1927

schools, had increased during the interval by 278 per cent.¹

TABLE 28—DECLINE IN GERMAN ENROLMENT IN HIGH AND CONTINUATION SCHOOLS SINCE 1914.

Year	Number of Pupils studying German in		Per Cent. Pupils Studying German in	
	High Schools	Continuation Schools	High Schools	Continuation Schools
1914	5396	177	14.79	2.91
1915	4606	160	11.98	2.35
1916-17	2297	81	7.96	1.59
1917-18	2197	73	7.55	1.43
1918-19	1638	48	5.32	.95
1919-20	1703	24	5.15	.46
1920-21	1795	10	5.25	.17
1921-22	1710	1	4.33	—
1922-23	1835	—	4.11	—
1923-24	1701	—	3.52	—
1924-25	1685	—	3.23	—
1925-26	1746	—	3.26	—
1926-27	1914	—	3.59	—

Statistical data on the teaching of German in the vocational schools (formerly known as technical and industrial schools) prior to 1916-17 are not given in the reports of the minister of education. Between 1916-17 and 1920-21 the language was taught in only one of these schools, the Toronto Technical and Art School, in which the number of pupils learning German diminished progressively, during the four years, from 187 to 8, and after the last named year the study was discontinued entirely. For two years no German was taught in any of the vocational schools. In 1923-24 only one pupil was enrolled in the subject (in the Hamilton school). For the next two years there was a recrudescence of the study, when it was

¹The number of high schools and collegiate institutes alone (*i.e.* not including the continuation schools and vocational schools) had grown during the same period by 70 per cent.

taught respectively in two and four schools and to 112 and 222 students. But in 1926-27 the enrolment fell off once more, diminishing to 46 pupils.

Is this withering of the attendance in German since 1915 only a passing phase to be followed by a revival of interest in the language, or is this subject doomed to recapitulate, on a foreshortened scale, the story of the study of Greek, which has all but passed out of our high schools?¹

The outlook at the present holds little promise for the early rehabilitation of German. The war-time prejudice against the study of the language has given way to opposition to it on grounds of economy and expediency of administration.

These considerations have resulted not only in the banishment of German from the majority of the schools but also in a curtailment of the time given to the subject in schools in which it is taught. Even in its heyday the German course was regularly one year shorter than the French. More recently the practice has been gaining ground of compressing into two years an amount of work in the former language normally done in four years in the French course, so that the study of German has frequently resolved itself into a deliberate "cram" for examinations, and has been taught by methods contravening most of the accepted principles of modern language teaching. With the rising cost of education the demands for economy have been more persistent and have had to be met.

Considerations of economy have also militated against a more general acceptance of Spanish in the secondary schools, after its introduction into the programme of

¹In 1925-26 there were 263 pupils in Greek in the 52 collegiate institutes, 66 in the 134 high schools, and none in the continuation schools; and they constituted only half of one per cent. of the secondary school enrolment exclusive of the vocational schools.

studies ten years ago. The subject has failed to take root, and present indications do not point to the probability of its growth. For despite the official regulations the tendency in Ontario has been, largely from motives of economy, toward fixed courses of instruction with a minimum of elective studies, a tendency that has been especially pronounced in smaller schools.

The way for the admission of Spanish into the secondary school curriculum was prepared by a paper read by Dr. M. A. Buchanan, professor of Italian and Spanish at the University of Toronto, before the Modern Language Association in 1917, and the following year the provincial matriculation board urged upon the department of education the claims of this language as a subject for the matriculation examination.¹ In August of the same year the study of Spanish was authorized as an optional subject in the commercial course of the high schools, and a month later this permission was extended also to the other courses. Accordingly Spanish acquired a legal status on a par with French and German. Facilities for learning the language by teachers were soon provided by the department of education in summer school courses. The admission of Spanish into the high school curriculum was received with warm acclaim by sponsors of the language and hopes ran high for the successful development of the new study. That these hopes have not been realized is made clear by the data in table 29. Italian, which was admitted into the programme of studies shortly after Spanish, has fared even worse than the latter language. Up to 1926-27 it had been taught in only one school (and only for two years) and the last reported registration was four pupils.

¹See Buchanan, *Spanish in our Universities and Schools*, in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, 1919, pp. 397 ff.

TABLE 29—NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS TEACHING SPANISH AND THE ENROLMENT IN THE SUBJECT BETWEEN 1919 AND 1927.

Year	Number of Schools		Enrolment		Per Cent. Pupils in Spanish
	Total	Teaching Spanish	Total	in Spanish	
1918-19	164	4	30,732	25	.08
1919-20	167	4	33,036	124	.37
1920-21	168	6	34,128	148	.43
1921-22	170	6	39,405	167	.42
1922-23	175	11	44,631	330	.51
1923-24	181	10	48,263	197	.41
1924-25	184	11	52,116	226	.43
1925-26	186	6	53,512	217	.41
1926-27			53,400	254	.47

Spanish has never been taught in any of the continuation schools and has had but scant and transitory vogue in the vocational schools. In only one of the latter institutions, namely, the Niagara Falls South school, was the language taught for two consecutive years (1923-24 and 1924-25), and only two other vocational schools, those in Hamilton (1921-22) and Sarnia (1922-23) have had classes in the subject, which were in both cases discontinued at the end of a year. Thus the teaching of Spanish in the vocational schools has been ephemeral indeed, lasting only for four years, from 1921-22 to 1924-25.

We shall now revert to a brief review of the general status of modern language teaching in the high schools of Ontario in the years following the war. With the conclusion of peace, the objectives, methods, and achievements in the teaching of modern languages were again subjected to scrutiny, and the dissatisfaction which had been largely pent up while the struggle lasted was again given voice to. Toward the end of 1918 the late Professor Squair reviewed the situation as regards French in an

Open Letter on the Teaching of French, which aroused a very animated discussion at the time; and in a paper which he read in the spring of the following year before the Modern Language Section,¹ he again called attention to the existing defects in the teaching of the language and suggested certain remedies. The inadequate results attained he attributed mainly to insufficient time devoted to this study, and advocated the prolongation of the secondary school French course by two or three years, either by introducing the subject into the elementary school or by lowering the age of admission of pupils into the high school.

A similar suggestion was contained in a series of recommendations submitted to the Section a few days later by Mr. W. H. Williams and Professor B. Fairley, at the conclusion of a review of the "Report on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain", which had been published the previous year. The speakers recommended among other things the establishment of junior high schools, where the study of a modern language might be begun at an earlier age. A resolution was also adopted at the same meeting requesting the minister of education to appoint a commission to investigate the status of modern language teaching "with the object of making it more practical and thorough." Nothing came of this suggestion. It was only one more cast into the limbo of neglected recommendations of the Modern Language Section.

Meanwhile steady progress was being made in the system of training high school teachers, including teachers of modern languages, and their qualifications were being gradually raised. The facilities for the professional

¹See Squair, *French in the Educational System of Ontario*, in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, 1919, pp. 389 ff.

training of secondary school teachers were materially improved with the establishment in 1908, in connection with the University of Toronto and Queen's University, of faculties of education, which took over the functions of the Ontario Normal College. Satisfactory provision was made in the new institutions for observation and practice teaching. This was especially true of the Faculty of Education of the University of Toronto which had practice schools connected with it, the University Schools. In Kingston the practical work was carried on in the collegiate institute and in one of the public schools. Both faculties of education offered improved courses for modern language specialists.

When the Faculty of Education of Queen's University was discontinued in 1920, the training of all secondary school teachers became centred in the Toronto institution, which was reorganized and its name changed to the Ontario College of Education. The courses for first class public school teachers' certificates, which had formed part of the programme of the faculties of education, were then transferred to the normal schools, and only university graduates were admitted into the College of Education. For, according to a new regulation, none but holders of university degrees could qualify as high school teachers after the opening of the 1920-1921 school term, whereas prior to that time a first class public school teacher's certificate (the academic standard for which was the upper school course) was accepted. The new regulation marked an important forward step in raising the qualifications of high school teachers.

An attempt was also made about this time (1919) to improve the equipment of teachers of French and more particularly their mastery of the oral language, by instituting summer courses in the subject at the University of

Toronto. These courses were further enhanced in 1927, when they were transferred to the city of Quebec and conducted in a purely French environment.

This was evidently done in response to a request in 1925 by the Modern Language Section. Throughout the period under review this organization continued to play a dominant *rôle* in the advancement of the cause of the study of modern languages. It is true that its recommendations, as previously indicated, were not always translated into action, but it kept its finger on the pulse of modern language teaching and diagnosed and suggested remedies for the maladies that beset it.

Some important educational developments that came in the wake of the war must now be noted. The most striking of these was the unprecedented expansion of secondary education. The sudden decline in attendance which had set in, due to war conditions, in 1916 was followed, after the declaration of peace, by a steadily and rapidly growing secondary school enrolment, which not only soon filled out the temporary depression of the war period, but reached a mark never before attained. In seven years the number of pupils on the rolls was nearly doubled. This remarkable growth was due, in the main, to two causes, *viz.*, a legislative enactment which raised the age of compulsory school education from fourteen to sixteen years, and a reorganization of the secondary school courses, both of which changes went into effect in 1921.¹

The reorganization of the secondary school curriculum was brought about with a view to remedying certain recognized evils springing from the operation of the regulations in force, evils, which repeated reforms, notably

¹The new curriculum and regulations became fully operative only the following year.

those at the beginning of the century, had failed to eradicate. In the first place, the courses of study continued to be excessively uniform. They were in practice, as they had been before the revision of 1904, only of two kinds, those leading to admission into the normal schools and those preparing for matriculation into the universities. The needs of the general student were not taken sufficiently into account. In the second place, the high school programme with its multiplicity of studies pursued concurrently, imposed too severe a strain on the pupils and tended to encourage superficiality in habits of study. Lastly, it was maintained, that the old curriculum was too rigidly centralized and not adaptable to special local needs.

The revision, then, aimed to make the curriculum more flexible by increasing the number of optional subjects; to relieve the overpressure by reducing the number of concurrent studies and by introducing the unit system of examinations, whereby one or more subjects could be tried at one time; and to encourage the pursuit by pupils of a general education, as opposed to a specific one in preparation of outside examinations, by awarding a new type of graduation diplomas to successful general course students. The new regulations also shortened the high school course from six to five years.¹

This reduction of the secondary school period had the effect of retaining many pupils in the schools beyond the middle school course, and consequently tended to augment the secondary school enrolment.² The most important

¹According to the regulations of 1913 the complete high school course was to be of six years' duration, divided, as in 1904, into lower, middle, and upper schools; but each of these divisions was now to be taken in two years. The reduction was effected in 1921 by introducing some of the upper school subjects into the fourth year of the course.

²See the report of the high school inspectors in the Report of the Minister of Education, 1923, p. 29.

factor, however, in increasing the attendance was the extension of the compulsory school age, already referred to, through the passage of the Adolescent Act of 1921. It swelled the numbers of pupils in the secondary schools to an unprecedented degree. The adoption of the unit system of examinations in place of the old system, which had required students to be examined on a large number of subjects at the same time, probably also tended to increase the high school registration, since unsuccessful candidates were now encouraged to prolong their stay at school with the fair prospect of being able, by repeated attempts, to overcome, if necessary one by one, even the most recalcitrant papers of the matriculation examination.

The unit system of examinations, which was one of the most radical changes introduced by the revision of 1921,¹ has in many respects belied the hopes that its adoption gave rise to, and has more particularly failed to work out to satisfaction as regards the foreign languages. The new system has not only tended to create in the minds of the students the perverted notion that the content of the curriculum consisted of unrelated and disjointed subjects, but that some of these were capable of further division into still smaller fairly independent parts. Thus even the sense of the unity of a single language has, to some extent, been destroyed in the minds of the pupils, since French or German may each be tried in two instalments, and a candidate may receive full credit for one part of the examination, though he fail dismally in the other. Dr. W. E. McNeill, registrar of Queen's University, in an address before the 1928 session of the Ontario Educational Association, put the matter this way:

The . . . foreign languages . . . are not necessarily studied as wholes and are not graded as wholes.

¹The change went into effect in 1922.

Sixty-seven out of 184 freshmen at Queen's University divided their papers in one or both languages, writing the authors in one year and the composition in another. That is nearly one-third. Doubtless many of these tried the two papers in the first year of writing and passed only one . . . In any case, a system under which thirty-one per cent. of matriculants pass authors and composition in different years will inevitably pull down the standards in foreign languages."¹

What have been the other effects of the revised curriculum? Has it led to a differentiation of schools or courses to meet peculiar local needs or suit special tastes or aptitudes of students? Has it evolved a class of general course pupils as distinguished from those preparing either for the teaching profession or the university? In a word, have most of the specific objectives aimed at been attained through the reorganization of the high school programme of studies? The answer to these questions must be a negative one. The high school course has remained in all essential respects unchanged, and has not been supplanted as was hoped, by a course calculated to round out, for the great majority of students, a secondary school education complete in itself.

Consequently the curriculum has continued to be characterized by uniformity and centralized prescription. Large masses of boys and girls have poured incessantly into the schools and have nearly all been put through the same educational process, without regard to their natural capacities or their proximate or ultimate needs. The new

¹From a copy of the address ("The Unit System of Matriculation Examinations") kindly furnished me by Dr. McNeill. In his indictment of the new examination system as a whole the speaker said: "Counting independent units is an American system. We seem to have taken it up in Ontario at the very time when the best American institutions are abandoning it. Harvard, and Yale, and Princeton are adopting and adapting the ways of Oxford and Cambridge. They are abandoning a system that counts the steps of the process for a system that concerns itself primarily with a measure of power and of final results."

graduation diploma has failed to provide an incentive for individualization in education.

Thus another attempt has come to grief, one of a long line of similar attempts to introduce diversity and freedom into the high school curriculum,¹ to fit it to the needs of the child rather than to squeeze the child into its mould. And so the Ontario high school remains today what it has always been, an examination-preparatory school. For notwithstanding all the protestations to the contrary, reiterated by inspectors and superintendents and ministers of education and stressed in prescribed programmes and regulations, the high school course has *in effect*, if not by intent or in theory, always had but one aim, namely, to prepare candidates for an entrance examination. And the distant goal of the entrance examination has been the motive power, the impelling force in education, and has tended, as already noted, to rigidity and uniformity.

The tendency to uniformity is strikingly illustrated by the preponderant importance assumed by the study of French. The registration in this subject has grown until in 1926-27, 85½ per cent. of all the students enrolled in the high schools were taking this language, the largest enrolment in any single subject except English.

¹The two most important reforms, prior to 1921, designed to adapt the secondary school to the needs of the great majority of students not preparing for outside examinations, were, as will be recalled, those of 1871 and 1904. In the former year provision was made for a special "English Course", intended for general course students, to be distinguished from the "Classical Course" for aspiring matriculants; and the revision of 1904 sought to introduce diversity into the high school programme by establishing a large number of courses. Other similar attempts at curricular reform may be cited. Even the Act of 1853 had provided for instruction in the grammar schools in "all the higher branches of a practical English and commercial education", and the revised regulations of 1865, at least in theory, took into account the needs of students not destined for the university. The regulations issued in 1876 gave considerable latitude to local authorities in the organization of the courses and in the choice of studies, and the amended regulations of 1882 permitted even greater flexibility of the curriculum by increasing greatly the number of options.

It is evident that many of these students are either by nature unfitted to learn a foreign language or have no intention of pursuing it long enough to acquire a degree of mastery. These pupils clog the French class-rooms, impede the progress of the linguistically gifted students, and tend to keep the study at a relatively low level. Not only in the urban high schools but in the rural continuation schools also the indiscriminate teaching of French is carried on. (In 1926-27 it was taken by 75 per cent. of all the students in these schools and six years earlier it had been taken by 87 per cent.) It is taught to nearly all alike, irrespective of their qualifications for the study or their present or future needs. Such is the passion for uniformity and ease of administration.

Wherein lies the remedy? How shall the potential linguists be singled out and the studies of others be directed to courses more in harmony with their native predispositions or more suitable for their ultimate careers? This problem evidently comes within the purview of educational psychology. But the first condition for any attempted solution is the effective substitution of pliancy for rigidity and of individuality for centralization in the secondary school system of Ontario.

How is this to be effected? The writer does not presume to rush in where the reformers of 1871, 1904, and 1921 feared to tread or trod in vain. One might, however, point to the example of certain European countries, where the solution has been found in either the differentiation of schools or of courses of study or to the example of several American states.

Various aspects of the modern language enrolment have been dealt with in different parts of the present chapter. Tables 30 and 31 give a general résumé of this enrolment for the whole period here discussed. Attention

has already been called to the unprecedented expansion of the French high school attendance, which, as shown by table 30, rose in twenty-two years by progressive steps¹ from 16,039 to 45,742 or from 57.88 per cent. to

TABLE 30—MODERN LANGUAGE ENROLMENTS IN HIGH SCHOOLS FROM 1904 TO 1927

Year	Enrolment					Per Cent. Pupils in		
	Total	French	German	Spanish	Italian	French	German	Spanish
1904	27,709	16,039	3274			57.88	11.81	
1905	28,661	16,430	3366			57.07	11.74	
1906	29,392	16,579	3593			56.41	12.22	
1907	30,331	17,310	3835			57.07	12.64	
1908	31,912	18,960	4009			59.41	12.32	
1909	33,101	19,720	4329			59.57	13.07	
1910	32,612	20,622	4758			63.23	14.58	
1911	32,227	20,684	5024			64.18	15.58	
1912	32,273	21,009	4911			65.09	15.21	
1913	33,746	22,806	5042			67.58	14.94	
1914	36,466	23,797	5396			65.25	14.79	
1915	38,426	26,462	4606			68.86	11.98	
1916	28,833	20,524	2297			71.18	7.96	
1917-18	29,097	21,296	2197			73.18	7.55	
1918-19	30,732	23,932	1638	25		77.87	5.32	
1919-20	33,036	26,313	1703	124		79.64	5.15	37
1920-21	34,128	27,956	1795	148		81.91	5.25	43
1921-22	39,405	21,211	1710	167		53.82	4.33	42
1922-23	44,631	35,059	1835	330		78.55	4.11	51
1923-24	48,263	38,832	1701	197		80.46	3.52	41
1924-25	52,116	41,980	1685	226		80.55	3.23	43
1925-26	53,512	44,173	1746	217	12	82.55	3.26	41
1926-27	53,400	45,742	1914	254	4	85.66	3.59	47

85.66 per cent. of the total, and which has, since 1915, been accompanied by and has partly resulted from a shrinking of the German enrolment. The table also depicts what appears at the present time, as was shown

¹The sudden depression of the French registration in 1921-22 was evidently due to the adoption that year of the unit system of examinations and the consequent relegation of the subject, in many schools, to the higher forms, an arrangement which was soon found unsatisfactory and was discontinued.

before, an abortive attempt to enrich the modern language programme by the addition of Spanish and the utter failure of the attempt to introduce Italian into the high school course.

Table 31 gives the statistical data for the continuation schools after 1911. No data are to be found in the reports of the minister of education prior to that year. The

TABLE 31—MODERN LANGUAGE ENROLMENTS IN CONTINUATION SCHOOLS FROM 1904 TO 1927

Year	Enrolment			Per Cent. Pupils in	
	Total	in French	in German	French	German
1911	5753	3401	165	59.11	2.86
1912	6094	3519	184	57.74	3.01
1913	5544	3163	177	57.05	3.19
1914	6069	3846	177	63.37	2.91
1915	6800	4420	160	65.00	2.35
1916-17	5082	3627	81	71.36	1.59
1917-18	5104	4025	73	78.85	1.43
1918-19	5006	4074	48	81.38	.95
1919-20	5126	4263	24	83.16	.46
1920-21	5823	5886	10	87.34	.17
1921-22	7505	6066	1	80.82	—
1922-23	8777	5933	—	67.60	—
1923-24	9337	6398	—	68.52	—
1924-25	10545	7082	—	67.16	—
1925-26	9944	7056	—	70.96	—
1926-27	9654	7214	—	74.72	—

attendance in French and German manifests a general parallelism to that of the high schools. The decline in the former language since 1921-22 has evidently been the result of the curricular revision of the time, and the consequent postponement in many schools of the French course to the higher years. The most striking development revealed by the table and discussed elsewhere in this chapter is the complete disappearance of German.

The French and German curricula have remained

virtually unaltered during the period under discussion and have continued to be conditioned, especially in the higher years, by the external examinations. As these have remained essentially unmodified since the beginning of the century, the methods of instruction in the schools have in the main not been changed during this period. The grammar-translation method still holds undisputed sway, since any other method would be prejudicial to success at the examinations. Consequently by far the greater portion of the student's time is spent on the weary, drab and disheartening task, devoid of any significance or present motive to the learner, of turning English sentences—usually disconnected sentences—into French or German; a much smaller share of time on the actual reading of foreign language texts; and, despite the exhortations contained in the syllabus of studies, only scant attention is being given in the crowded and unequal classes to *viva voce* exercises in the foreign languages.

In this connection the testimony of an English inspector who recently visited our high schools, Mr. E. G. Savage, one of His Majesty's inspectors of secondary schools in England, is of more than usual interest. To quote:

"In the languages, Latin and French, the rate of progress considering the age of the pupils, is slow. The writer desires to avoid comparisons, but in this case it must be said that progress is slower than under any other system with which he is acquainted. The many periods during which accidence and syntax alone are studied are so long drawn out that pupils lose interest in the subjects (the expression commonly used is that they 'find them hard' but it means the same thing). It is suggested that in both cases reading of real texts should be begun much sooner, and that less time should be spent on laboriously working through exercises in which it is very difficult to find any real interest. They become a succession of tests of the ability to juggle with case endings and verb

forms, but if these are not constantly encountered in the live words of a real author, they become obliterated in the memory and no real appreciation of their use is retained by the time actual reading is begun."¹

The general methodology of the modern language school books, as of the teachers, has changed but little during the period under review, though new and improved text-books have been authorized from time to time. In 1909 appeared a new and vastly improved edition of Van der Smissen and Fraser's *Ontario High School German Grammar* and four years later a new edition of Fraser and Squair's *French Grammar*, was brought out, which is still, with some insignificant changes, on the authorized list. The German grammar was supplanted in 1925 by a new book, from the pens of Professors A. E. Lang and G. H. Needler of the University of Toronto, conceived on a plan differing from that of its predecessor and designed to introduce the learner early to reading German.

The readers, too, have been changed in recent years. A new German reader, edited by Professor A. E. Lang, was authorized in 1911, and is still in use. The French reader which was authorized the same year has since been changed twice, in 1921 and 1927, each preceding text-book being followed by a markedly improved work. The last-named edition especially is incomparably superior, both as to format and contents, to the preceding books, and has supplied a long-felt want in furnishing reading matter graded to suit the comprehension of the various stages of the learner. The French reader of 1911 was edited by Mr. (now Professor) W. C. Ferguson, who was also joint editor with Mr. (now Professor) H. S. McKellar of the 1921 edition, both of whom, jointly with Miss Alice Wilson, edited the latest authorized book.

¹See Report of the Minister of Education, 1926, p. 31.

While the French reader and, to a lesser extent, the French grammar and German reader, have been changed at fairly frequent intervals, the modern language authors prescribed have remained largely unaltered in a generation or more. Some of them bid fair to exceed the span of life, in the Ontario secondary school curriculum, of *Télémaque*, and others have already surpassed the duration of the popularity of *Charles XII* or Racine. A number of authors that were in vogue at the beginning of the last decade of the nineteenth century and earlier are still the rage today. Thus a relatively small number of books have been used in recurring cycles for from thirty to fifty years. A few examples will prove enlightening. Souvestre, *Un Philosophe sous les Toits*, was first prescribed in 1878 and last prescribed in 1924; Scribe, *Le Verre d'Eau*, was read in the high schools as early as 1887 and as late as 1910; Hauff, *Das kalte Herz*, 1887 and 1923; Labiche, *Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon*, 1891 and 1928. Of the nine texts to be read in the four French and German courses in 1929, two were first prescribed in 1891, one in 1896, two in 1897, two during the first decade of the present century, and only two more recently.

The longevity of these texts is the more surprising as they were not originally selected, as the earlier authors had been, as specimens of French and German classical literature. In fact some of them can lay but doubtful claim to artistic merit and a few cannot even be classed as literature in any strict sense of the word. For although several of the books possess undoubted literary excellence, they were in the first place chosen mainly for other qualities—qualities that made them peculiarly valuable as modern language text-books,—such as their naturalness of dialogue, their exemplification of current colloquial usages, and especially for the light they threw, at the time

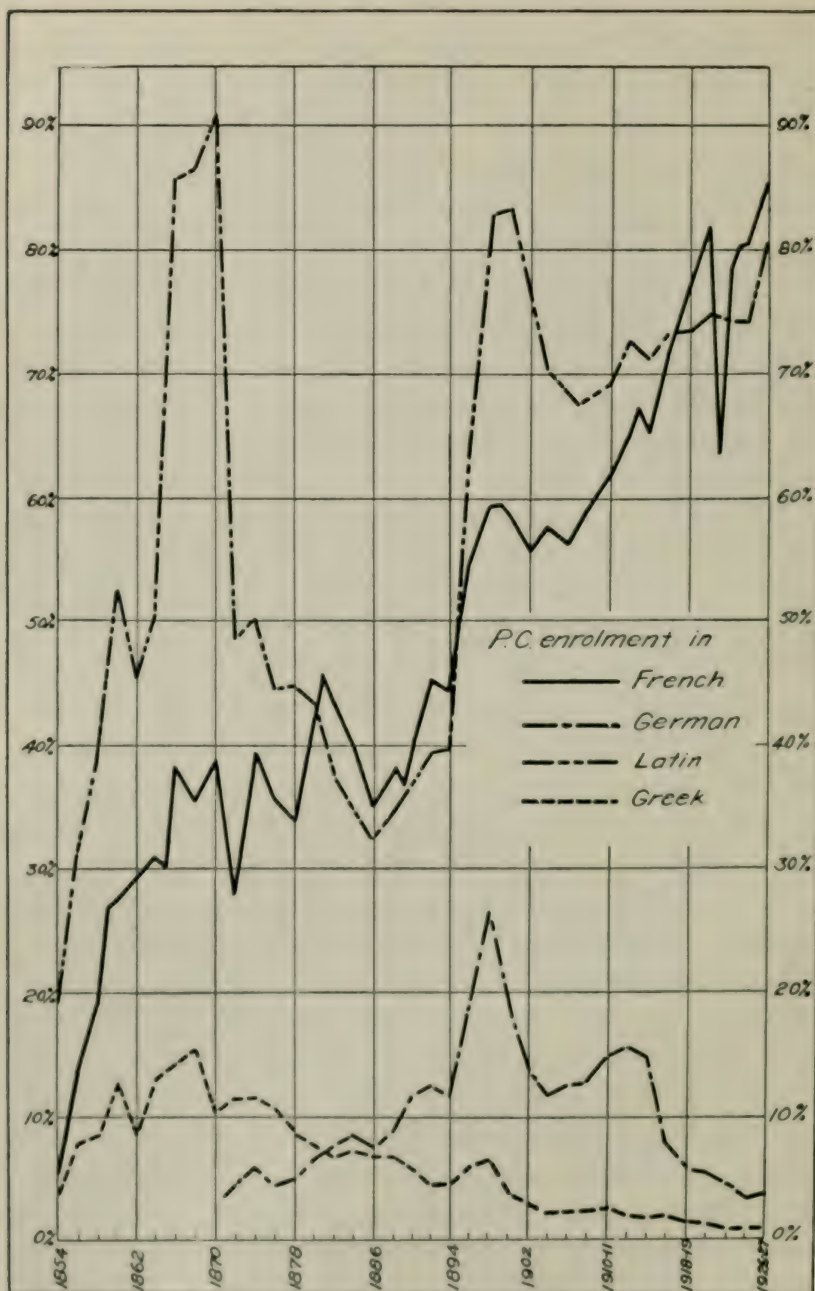


Fig. 13. — RESUME OF THE ENROLMENTS IN THE LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS BETWEEN 1854 AND 1927

The percentage of pupils enrolled in French, German, Latin, and Greek respectively is shown. The reasons for the rises and falls in the registration are discussed in various chapters of this study.

of their prescription, on the prevailing social conditions, customs, tastes, and aspirations of the peoples in whose languages they were written. But momentous changes have been wrought in the course of a generation not only in the social and economic structures and in the modes of life delineated in the books, but there have occurred slight modifications even in the languages in which they are written and whose vernacular usages they were intended to exemplify. In a word, the modern language authors that are read in the schools today have ceased to be *contemporary* both as regards their subject matter and, to some extent, as regards their colloquial idioms. These works constitute, in a sense, together with the prevailing grammar-translation method, the anachronisms of the present school curriculum.

The story of the teaching of modern languages in the secondary schools of Ontario has now been told. We have peered into their remote and obscure beginnings over a hundred years ago, we have watched their uncertain and timid and vacillating movements for more than thirty years thereafter, and then, we saw them emerge, sixty years ago, greatly strengthened and vivified, to battle with increasing vigour for curricular recognition, still later grappling for mastery with the aboriginal dwellers of the school programme, over whom they triumphed. They throve and grew to a towering height,—a doubtful advantage—the giants of the curriculum.

—ISIDORE GOLDSTICK,

Sir Adam Beck Collegiate Institute, London.

THE UNIVERSITIES OF ONTARIO

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

In 1827 a charter was granted by His Majesty George IV for the establishment of a university at York (now Toronto) under the designation of "King's College", and in the following year the institution was endowed by patent with a portion of the land which had previously been set apart by His Majesty George III for educational purposes.

In 1837 the Royal Charter was amended by a statute passed by the Legislature of Upper Canada with the object of removing certain restrictions which were regarded as unsatisfactory; but in consequence of various impediments the institution was not opened for the admission of students until June 8th, 1843. From that date till December 31, 1849, it was conducted under the Royal Charter as amended by the provincial statute.

Another provincial statute, through which important modifications were effected and the designation changed from "King's College" to that of "University of Toronto", came into operation on January 1, 1850. Under this statute the establishment was conducted until April, 1853, when the university was divided into two institutions, one retaining the title of "University of Toronto" and the other styled "University College, Toronto".

The University now became an examining body on the model of the University of London, while teaching was carried on by the College. Chairs of natural sciences, modern languages, English and history were founded and the length of the course raised from three years to four. A pass and honours system was initiated, honours being provided for by the addition of extras, and a scheme of

options—in the second year as between classics and moderns—was introduced.

Quoting a statement made by Vice-Chancellor Langton, Sir Robert Falconer points out that this optional arrangement was not accepted without resistance.¹ Dr. Beaven, the professor of divinity, metaphysics and ethics, took advantage of the fact that metaphysics was a “fixed” subject, and by examining almost altogether from Aristotle, Cicero, etc., compelled his students actually to read more Greek and Latin than Dr. McCaul himself, the professor of classics, required of his students.

Under the regulations of the new curriculum there was a final honours examination, after the last regular examination of the fourth year, and, as a reward for scholarship, gold medals were offered in various departments of study, of which Modern Languages was one.

The first appointee to the new professorship of modern languages established in 1853 was James Forneri, an expatriated Italian soldier and patriot who held an LL.D. from Padua. Forneri's duties covered courses in French, German, Italian and Spanish. He continued to hold this comprehensive post till 1866, when the chair was abolished and lectureships were constituted in each of the languages previously included in the professorship.

Dr. Forneri, now seventy years of age, took over the work in Italian and Spanish and carried on for two years more till his resignation in 1868. The courses in French were entrusted to Emile Pernet, and the work in German confided to William Henry Van der Smissen, later the translator of Goethe's *Faust* and now professor emeritus.

A striking indication of the growth of the work in modern languages is found in the fact that while one

¹*Liberal Education in Canada, Canadian Historical Review*, June, 1927.

professor only was employed from 1853 till 1866 the teaching staff in French, German, Italian and Spanish¹ has increased to a total of some forty-eight persons in 1927-28.

The calendar of 1857—the first available—offers an option in the second year of one course to be selected from French, German and Hebrew. The third year includes French, German, Italian, Hebrew, Chaldee, etc., and the fourth year programme comprises all four of the usual modern languages—French, German, Italian and Spanish. In each of the last two years permission was given to choose between the classics and moderns.

FRENCH²

Although Forneri had been appointed first professor of modern languages in 1853, it is the calendar of 1857-58 which gives the first specific information of the work in French prescribed by the new department of modern languages. As set forth below it will be observed that the authors in all four years represent the classical period alone; grammar and composition appear in all four years. History of literature is required, beginning with the second year. Throughout the whole course a clear distinction is drawn between pass and honours work,—the latter being notably heavier; conversation in French is prescribed for honours students in the final years.

1857-58—Modern Languages—University College.
First Year French—Grammar; La Fontaine's *Fables*, I, II, III; *Montesquieu, *Grandeur et Décadence*

¹In 1887 Italian and Spanish became University subjects.

²As a source of information, besides calendars and examination papers, access has been had to the early chapters of the late Professor John Squair's *Autobiography of a Professor of French in University College*, a work that is now in press. For Forneri, see J. King, *McCaul, Croft, Forneri*, Toronto, 1914.

des Romans; *Voltaire, *Alzire*; *Translation into French.

Second Year—La Bruyère, *Caractères (de l'homme, des jugements, de la mode, de quelques usages)*; *Racine, *Iphigénie*; *Molière, *Le Misanthrope*; Translation into French; History of French Literature of the 17th century. (Sismondi's *Literature of the South of Europe*.)

Third Year—Racine, *Athalie*; Bossuet, *Oraisons Funèbres (de la Reine d'Angleterre, et du Prince de Condé)*; *Rotrou, *Venceslas*; *Boileau, *L'Art Poétique*; Composition in French; History of French Literature in the 17th century (Chouquet's).

Fourth Year—Corneille, *Le Cid*; Fénelon, *Les Dialogues des Morts*, I to XL; *Molière, *Le Médecin malgré lui*; *Racine, *Esther*; *Poetry of the Troubadours and Trouvères compared, and rendered into French prose; History of French Literature, from the 18th century to the present time (Chouquet's); Composition and Conversation in French.

Examination papers exist from the year 1855, but as the prescriptions on which they are based are not extant we may perhaps most intelligently exemplify the type of test in favour three quarters of a century ago by giving an abridgement of the final examination papers of 1858:

First Year—First Paper—One paper only divided into two parts. Part I: 17 grammatical questions. Ex. How is an English participle present, standing as a substantive and as the subject of a verb, to be rendered into French; and how when it is not the subject, but is preceded by a possessive

*Only for candidates for honours.

pronoun? Part II: Section from La Fontaine's *Fables* to be translated followed by 17 grammatical questions.

Second Paper—Honours and Scholarships. Part I: Short paragraph in English to be translated. Part II: Passage from Montesquieu to be translated—9 text questions. Part III: Passage from Voltaire to be translated—10 text questions.

Second Year—First Paper—Three parts. Part I: Short paragraph in English to be translated. Part II: Passage from La Bruyère to be translated—13 text questions. Part III: 12 questions on French Literature to the 17th century. Ex.: What difference can you make between the Greeks and the Troubadours in point of poetical imagination?

Honours and Scholarships—one paper—two parts. Part I: Passage from Molière to be translated—13 text questions. Part II: Passage from Racine to be translated—9 text questions.

Third Year—First Paper—Four parts. Part I: Subject for French Composition: "A Short Sketch of Toronto." Part II: Passage from Racine to be translated—19 text questions. Part III: Passage from Bossuet to be translated—11 text questions. Part IV: 6 questions on French Literature of the 17th century. Ex.: When did the first *Satires* of Boileau appear, and what is the character of their style?

Honours and Scholarships—one paper—two parts. Part I: Passage from Boileau to be translated—10 text questions. Ex.: Bergerac . . . Motin. What did they write and what was the character of their writings? Part II:

Passage from Rotrou to be translated—16 text questions.

Fourth Year—First Paper—four parts. Part I: Subject for French Composition—"What is Liberty?" Part II: Passage from Corneille to be translated—12 text questions. Part III: Passage from Fénelon to be translated—13 text questions. Part IV: Six questions on French Literature from the 18th century to the present time. *Honours and Scholarships*—one paper—Three parts. Part I: Four stanzas from the *Langue d'Oc* and the *Langue d'Oil* to be translated first into English and then into modern French, followed by 17 questions. Ex. Point out all the words which from the *Langue d'Oc* have passed into the *Langue d'Oil*, or into other languages, without modifications. Part II: Passage from Molière to be translated—4 text questions. Part III: Passage from Racine to be translated—13 text questions. Ex.: "Dans sa juste fureur." How will you conciliate "crime" with "juste fureur"?

It is obvious from the foregoing papers that the grammar-translation method of teaching was rigidly followed.

In the year 1866 some reorganization took place in the department of modern languages. As a result of this, Professor Forneri, though continuing in control of the work in Italian and Spanish, relinquished charge of French and German, in each of which branches a new lecturer was appointed. Emile Pernet assumed the direction of the work in French and remained at the head of this department until 1883, when John Squair, who was one of Pernet's students and had just graduated,

was appointed lecturer, and was to serve with distinction till 1916, the date of his retirement.

With the exception of certain more or less routine changes in the texts, few alterations in the courses took place during the years of Professor Forneri's occupancy of the chair of modern languages. However, during Pernet's teaching period innovations in texts and methods are discernible.

In 1867-78 Chambaud's *Grammar* was prescribed for the second year. Guizot, *Histoire de la Civilisation en Europe*, appears as a third year honours text, and Lamartine, *Voyage en Orient*, as a fourth year honours text. The history of French Literature from the eighteenth century to the "present time" (Choquet) was also prescribed.

It is interesting to note, as the years go by, the gradual advent of reading material of the writers of the romantic period, first Madame de Staël, then cautiously, Guizot and Lamartine. In 1869-70, De Vigny's *Cinq-Mars* is prescribed for first year honours and Ponsard's *L'Honneur et L'Argent* for fourth year honours. In the same session de Fivas' *Grammar* is prescribed for the first year and Pujol's replaces Chambaud's in the second year. Both third and fourth year honours students are given conversation in French, and, for the first time, apparently, sight translation is introduced in class-room work.

Meantime, the current examination papers remain of the same general type. An occasional innovation may be observed. In the fourth year honour and scholarship paper of 1863 a note at the head of the paper states that all answers must be written in French. Passages also from the *Langue d'Oil* and the *Langue d'Oc* are to be rendered into modern French. It may be remarked that from the

beginning some study was seemingly devoted, as the calendar of 1857-58 indicates, to "The Poetry of the Troubadours and Trouvères." As the examination papers do not make any phonological demands, it is probable that a reading knowledge alone was expected.

The teaching of free composition in French was evidently in vogue at this date, as is indicated by the requirement of composition on such subjects as "What is Liberty?" (fourth year, 1858), "The Horse" (third year, 1862), "Discovery of Printing" (third year, 1863). The grammar taught seems to have consisted of questions directly arising out of the texts read or of demands for the reproduction of grammatical rules. Sometimes, indeed, French sentences involving mistakes are given for correction. The contemporary liking for applied grammar in the form of the translation of sentences involving important points of grammar does not seem to have been employed at the date in question.

In 1864 the third year paper calls for a composition on "Education and Culture of the Mind necessary to Women." Although women were not admitted to university examinations until 1877, and not to register in University College till 1884, it is clear that the question of higher education for women was already a matter of some public interest.

Although the direct grammatical question is still in vogue, two years later we find short sentences illustrative of grammatical points set down for translation into French, as, for example: I have heard her sing; sing the song which he heard her sing.

In the honours papers there is apparent a tendency to require the answers to questions to be written in French. For example, the two fourth year honours and scholarship papers of this year are to be answered entirely in French.

A type of question occurring at this period is the giving of a verse fable in which errors are found and which the candidate is required to turn into prose, substituting French synonyms for as many words as possible (second year honours, 1867).

That the interest in formal grammar was kept alive is clear from the third year pass paper of 1869, which poses the following problem. Parse the following:

Et moi, je suis venu, détestant la lumière,
M'acquitter, seigneur, du malheureux emploi
Dont son coeur expirant s'est reposé sur moi.

In the third year honours papers of the same session a passage from Guizot's *Civilization* is to be translated into English, and among the text questions based on the extract is one asking for a list of the verbs occurring in the passage, accompanying each verb with a corresponding (cognate?) noun and adjective.

Some of the topics prescribed for free composition in French are interesting to recall. No indication is given of a minimum length. "Newspapers, their influence in an intellectual point of view" (fourth year, 1867); "The Climate of Canada" (third year, 1869); "De l'enthousiasme et des efforts" (fourth year, 1869); "L'Avarice" (third year, 1870) and "La Prière" (third year, 1874).

It is evident that the translation of the sentence was thoroughly establishing itself as a test, for the first year paper of 1870 asks for the translation into French of no less than twenty-five sentences. In the first year paper of 1872 we find that 39 sentences are to be rendered into French. Again, in the fourth year paper of 1873, the translation of sentences is called for.

In the fourth year paper of 1874 the section on literary history departs from the usual type of question, and asks the candidate to note the peculiarities of etymological

and grammatical forms in another section of the paper, and assign to each one its proper period, giving the date of origin, etc., in modern French. In 1876, however, reversion is made to the ordinary literary-historical question, so long in favour.

Throughout the quarter century under review the examination papers substantially echo a pretty rigid grammar-translation method of teaching and do not differ in type from papers which might reasonably be based on the classical languages. One is struck, for instance, by the lack of specific interest in the verb as the pivot of the language.

Returning now to the curriculum, we observe in 1879-80 the prescription in the first and second years of Brachet's *Grammar* in addition to De Fivas'. In 1880-81 a note in connection with third and fourth year honours states that in the lecture room translations are to be made from unspecified authors and that special attention will be given to conversation in French.

It was at this time that John Squair graduated from the university and immediately joining the faculty remained in control of the teaching of French in University College till his retirement as professor emeritus in 1916. There is no doubt that the high reputation of the work done at Toronto over the thirty years of his academic career was very largely due to his scholarship and self-sacrificing devotion to duty. Soon after his appointment the curriculum begins to show signs of his influence. The programmes of the various years take on an order and system which in the older régime had been lacking.

The reorganization of the content of instruction in French is first, perhaps, fully apparent in the calendar of 1885-86. Grammar, dictation, composition and sight

translation are definitely prescribed for all four years. In the first year French literature is studied in outline; one play, Scribe's *Bertrand et Raton* is prescribed for pass candidates and in addition a play by Ponsard, *L'Honneur et l'Argent*, for honours. We note that instead of the former half dozen texts, the new plan evidently contemplated concentration on the intrinsic study of a modern play as embodying the living contemporary language. The first year was clearly to be a linguistic year.

The second year, at least for pass, was devoted chiefly to the nineteenth century, including the history of literature for that period; the reading of three texts: Ponsard's *Charlotte Corday*; About's *La Fille du Chanoine* and *La Mère de la Marquise*; and in addition, *French Lyrics*, beginning with Malherbe. For honours work there was added: Beaumarchais, *Barbier de Séville*; Hugo, *Hernani*; Molière, *Les Précieuses Ridicules*; Balzac, *Eugénie Grandet*; and Brachet, *Historical Grammar of the French Language*.

The third year is given over to a study of the 17th and 18th centuries, and included: Voltaire, *Zaïre*; La Fontaine, *Fables*, I-III; Mérimée, *Colomba*. For honours there was prescribed: Conversation, modern French grammar; *Grammaire de la Langue d'Oïl*; Brachet, *Introduction to Etymological French Dictionary*; *Chanson de Roland* (in Bartsch's *Chrestomathie*); Saintsbury, *French Lyrics* (Ronsard to Regnier); and in addition to the foregoing texts no fewer than fifteen of Molière's plays running from *l'Etourdi* to *Le Malade Imaginaire*. The extensive nature of the programme causes wonder as to the fashion in which the work, as laid down, was covered.

For the fourth year we find prescribed: French literature prior to the 17th century; one play each by Corneille,

Racine and Molière; selections from La Bruyère. Representing the older language there is laid down for honours: Bartsch, *Chrestomathie de l'Ancien Français*; some fifteen old French texts from the Strasburg Oaths down to Marot; conversation in French; grammar of the French language in all its stages; Littré, *Histoire de la Langue Française* (selected sections).

Candidates were also expected to show a "reasonable acquaintance" with the chief works of Victor Hugo and their relation to the general and social history of his time. The following works were to be read: *Les Ballades*, *Les Chants du Crépuscule*, *Les Orientales*, *Hernani*, *Lucrèce Borgia*, *Marie Tudor*, *Angelo*, *Ruy Blas*, *Bug Jargal*, *Le Dernier Jour d'un Condamné*, *Notre Dame de Paris*, *Napoléon le Petit*.

One is struck in reviewing this four year programme by the progress expected in the development from the small amount of intensive reading in the first year to the very heavy course prescribed for the fourth year. One senses, perhaps, the effort to make it clear that the new modern rival of the classics proposes hard work and a severity of discipline at least equal to that offered by the two great languages and literatures of antiquity.

The examinations based on the curriculum just described are not of special interest and do not appear to involve any noteworthy innovations. There are the usual sentences to be translated into French. The only trace of the old formal grammar type of question is found in the statement, for instance, in the first year paper, that if in a sentence the candidate does not know the words required, credit will be given provided the grammatical point concerned is detected and explained. In the second year there are two pass papers and two honours papers; in the third year, one pass and two

honours; and in the fourth year, two papers of each grade. The general type of question consists of a passage from an author studied to be translated, with a few pendant questions based thereon. There are also questions on the history of literature, and always a piece of continuous English prose to be rendered into French. For the moment free composition in French seems to have fallen into disfavour, for strangely enough none of the examination papers for all four years make any demand of this kind.

In 1888-89 the prescription of texts and works shows little change. We note in the third and fourth years the disappearance of Bartsch's *Chrestomathie*, and the substitution in the former of some five hundred lines from Clédat's edition of *La Chanson de Roland*, and in the latter the substitution of Suchier's edition of *Aucassin et Nicolette*.

The first year examination paper for 1889 introduces a novelty in offering optional questions. Though free composition is still absent, five questions are asked in French which are to be answered in French.

There is but little to comment on in the following years. A tendency to cut down the amount of reading demanded becomes apparent, for instance, in 1890-91, when in third year honours we find the Molière plays to be studied reduced from the previous fifteen to seven. Elements of French philology now appear also in third year honours. In the second year too the reading was distinctly less than five years earlier and one suspects that the feeling was growing that the second, as well as the first, was to be regarded primarily as a linguistic period and that the serious study of literature had better come later.

We observe in 1894-95 that, from second year honours

on, composition in French is now definitely prescribed in addition to the traditional translation. Any other changes are mostly in the direction of a reduction of the amount of authors.

In 1895-96 phonetics definitely makes its appearance. It heads the prescription for moderns, and it is laid down that "An elementary knowledge of physiological phonetics will be required and of its bearing upon the sounds of the various languages studied."¹ As no titles of texts are mentioned, sight work only was apparently contemplated with the first year. A further interesting innovation is the announcement of an oral examination. Whether conducted or not, there is no allusion to an oral examination in the case of the higher years. The attempt to introduce an oral test apparently met with small success, for in the curricula of the immediately following sessions no further reference is made to this obvious type of modern language examination.

In 1896-97, judging by the calendar statement, a certain internal reorganization of the courses took place according to which the work under the general course was outlined by itself and the honours work described under the caption "Modern Languages". Hitherto the honours work had been apparently an enlargement of the pass work, but hereafter the two courses were to be distinct and separate from first to last.

The authors in the first two years of the general course were not specified and were read at sight; in each of the third and fourth years selected texts from the 17th and 19th centuries were studied.

With respect to the honours course the literary move-

¹Phonetics was introduced by Professor W. H. Fraser, who taught it to all modern language students until his death in 1916. Phonetics is now provided for in each language department.

ments of the past three centuries were distributed over the three final years in a fashion that was to remain constant for upwards of ten years. Substantially, the second year was devoted to the seventeenth century, the third year to the eighteenth century down to the close of classicism and the fourth year to the nineteenth century. The usual demands were made, of course, for grammar, composition (not in the first year), dictation and sight translation.

The first year examination of 1890 continues the plan of offering optional questions begun the year before. In the early nineties there seems to have been a deep-seated belief, at least in modern languages circles, in the virtue of many papers, and in 1891 we find the third year confronted with five final papers—two for pass and three for honours. The contemporary fourth year was still more generously treated for it was allowed seven papers in which to exhibit its knowledge or betray its ignorance as the case might be—in this instance there were three pass and four honours papers. The content of these papers is of the usual type: grammar, translation and composition. A choice of subjects is offered for composition such as: "L'Avenir du Canada", "Comment on fait la Politique au Canada", "L'Alliance entre la France et la Russie", etc. There are questions dealing with literary history, and passages are cited which are to be referred to the periods and schools to which they belong.

In the first year paper of 1893 we meet again an old type of question: the correction of ungrammatical sentences, in which also silent letters and liaisons are to be pointed out. There are, in this session, five papers for the third year and six for the fourth year. In general there is little to differentiate year by year the papers of this period.

In 1897-98 entire dependence in the first and second years of the general course on sight work was abandoned and an examination was announced respectively on 80 pages of *Scenes of Family Life in Colloquial French* and on 63 pages of *Choix de Contes Contemporains*.

During the following six years, till 1903-04, few, other than routine, changes take place in the programme of French studies. Certain internal adjustments in the various courses were made in order to make the programme articulate more smoothly with the regulations of the Ontario Department of Education relating to specialist certificates. Three hour courses, for instance, involving grammar, composition, etc., and authors were divided into two courses: a one-hour course for grammar and composition and a two-hour course for authors.

In the following year for third and fourth year honours an item "oral term work" appears. In the second year pass, instead of, as previously, either sight reading or a fixed text, a list of some dozen and a half plays and stories is given, of which students are recommended to read two or three.

A scrutiny of the examination papers during the period under review, roughly the decade closing in 1906, betrays few novelties and indicates that the teaching personnel, which was constant at this time, must have been reasonably content with the results.

In 1906-07 a new system of numbering courses was introduced. The numerals 1, 2, 3, 4 indicated the academic year and the letters following signified the various courses offered in a given year.

At the same time a slight re-arrangement of the material in the courses was effected. The authors of first year honours now consist of two plays by Molière and one book of La Fontaine's *Fables*, together with the

outline of history of literature down to the middle of the 16th century. Otherwise the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries remain as before the reading, respectively, of the second, third and fourth years in honours. Old French grammar, elements of French phonology and the study of a small amount of *La Chanson de Roland* (ll. 1-365) are placed in the third year, while history of the French language is assigned to the fourth year, each course involving one hour per week.

Little change in the curriculum needing comment occurs till 1910-11, when specified texts are again abandoned in the first year pass, and faith once more restored in sight work exclusively. In the same session the initial 365 lines of the *Roland* were exchanged for some dozen short passages selected at scattered intervals throughout the poem.

In harmony with the growing recognition of the necessity for giving a cultural background to the study of literature, we note in 1914-15 the addition in fourth year honours of an item "History of French Society and Institutions in the 19th Century."

The following year, 1915-16, a special course in French is announced for science students.

It was in the year 1916 that Professor John Squair, who for over thirty years had presided with such distinction to himself and to the University over the French department, retired from active teaching work. Subsequent to his withdrawal and in part probably owing to the development in moderns studies caused by the war, a notable expansion is observable in the number and scope of the courses of instruction made available in the department.

The process of widening the subject matter was to go on. In 1916-17 we find a new historical course of one

hour a week prescribed for first year honours students (taken over from the history department)—“*Outlines of Medieval History: Romanization of Gaul, Introduction of Christianity, Barbarian Invasions, Carolingian Empire, Feudal System, Establishment of the Monarchy, Chivalry, Scholasticism, Rise of Commerce, Schools and Universities, Gallo-Roman and Gothic Art.*”

Courses similar in scope and intent are also announced for the upper years in connection with the story of the literature of the 16th, 17th, 18th and 19th centuries.

In second year honours some time is given to poetry of the 14th century. A new course is offered in the third year, “*The Classic Ideal as represented in critical writings from the Pléiade to the beginnings of Romanticism,*” and another new course, “*Contemporary Literature,*” is added to the fourth year. Essays on prescribed topics are allowed in the two final years, as optional for religious knowledge, a pass subject.

The honours courses having been enlarged and modified, attention was turned in 1919-20 to the pass course which now, in its turn, underwent a somewhat drastic overhauling and stiffening. The first year was to contain composition, but out of the list of ten or twelve recommended texts—drama, fiction and history—a minimum of 350 pages was to be read. For the second year four works are prescribed for critical study; one of these might be of an historical type. The third year was to concentrate, by means of the literature of the period under review, on the “*Standards of the Classical Age and the Main Ideas of the 18th century from Malherbe to the Philosophers;*” while the fourth year hereafter was to make a study of the “*Forces and Movements in French Literature since 1750.*”

The intention, in the case of the pass student, was to

arouse his interest rather in the general currents of thought as echoed in literature than to permit him to read masterpieces in a somewhat desultory way and with an inadequate notion of the significance of the book in the stream of thought. Moreover, in 1920-21, essays are required of fourth year pass students.

In 1922-23, as in other modern language departments, a special course for students in commerce was instituted, in which stress is laid on present-day colloquial French, attention being given to practical work in the spoken tongue and commercial correspondence.

In 1924-25 signs are not wanting of the rising feeling that college work should be more individual than in the past, and we observe in the third year pass that supplementary reading, carried on under the direct supervision of the instructor, forms an essential part of the course.

Enough, perhaps, has been already said with respect to the types of examinations prevailing at Toronto to make unnecessary much further in the way of comment on tests during the past few years. Until quite lately the examinations do not appear to embody any very striking novelties. There is rather a swinging backward and forward of the pendulum, as this type of question or that type waxed or waned in favour or disfavour. In very recent years the tendency has reappeared of requiring certain sections of some papers to be answered in French.

In the 1927 first year pass paper a very interesting novelty is observable. Instead, as customarily, demanding translation, a section of the paper takes the form of a comprehension test. Four French passages are cited, followed by questions in French to be answered in English, intended to demonstrate to what extent the candidate has grasped what he has read.

This innovation marks the advent of the so-called

achievement type of test. While prophecy is a thankless business it is perhaps not venturing too far to conjecture, from investigation now proceeding, that examinations henceforth will tend to become more objective, and be powerfully influenced by the results of experiments and developments being carried forward in the field of education.

German

As already pointed out, the calendar for 1857-58 gives the earliest indication of the work offered in German. As no prescription is made for the first year, it is to be assumed that the German courses began in the second year. As a matter of interest the texts for this initial programme of three quarters of a century ago are here cited:

Second Year:

Grammar, Adler's *Reader* 1, 2, 3.

Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*.

Translation into German.

History of German Literature (Gostwick: Periods 1, 2, 3, 4.)

Third Year:

Lessing, *Minna von Barnhelm*.

Wieland, *Geschichte der Abderiten*.

Goethe, *Iphigenie auf Taurus*.

Translation into German and Composition.

History of German Literature (Gostwick: Periods 5 and 6).

Fourth Year:

Goethe, *Hermann und Dorothea*.

Schiller, *Geschichte des Abfalls der Niederlande*, Books 1 and 2. *Maria Stuart*.

Körner, *Vermischte Gedichte*.

Composition in German.

History of German Literature (Gostwick: Periods).

The course outlined above continued unchanged, except for one or two variations in the texts used, till the session of 1861-62 when we find that conversation in German is added to the fourth year.

In the same academic year we meet the first existing samples of examination papers which throw light (whether reliable or not) on the ground covered in the courses given.

1862

Two papers in second year. The first one contains three parts. Part 1—15 grammar questions. Example: In how many ways can adjectives be declined? Give examples. Part 2—Translation of a paragraph from German into English followed by eight grammatical questions on the extract. Part 3—Four questions on the history of German Literature of the Gostwick Periods (1, 2, 3 and 4). Example: What difference can you draw between the literature of the South and that of the North of Germany?

The second paper in German is for "Honours and Scholarships". It is divided into two parts. The first part is a short paragraph in English to be translated into German. The second is a paragraph in German to be translated into English, followed by 21 grammatical questions on the extract.

In the third year there are also two papers, the first a pass paper and the second an honours and scholarships. First Paper. Part 1—Structure of the German Language. This section asks for the place of the verb in interrogative propositions, in exclamative, imperative, dependent sentences, etc. and ends with several sentences written in

German to be arranged according to the rules of construction. Part 2 presents 7 English sentences to be translated into German. Part 3 contains a long extract from Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm* to be translated into English, followed by 17 questions on the extract. Part 4 is concerned with the history of German literature. Ex.: When were the dramas of Shakespeare introduced and recommended to the attention of German students and by whom? *Second paper.* The honours paper has three parts. The first part simply says: Subject for German composition "*Noth macht erfinderisch*". Parts 2 and 3 are similar in that they contain extracts from German authors followed by grammatical questions.

The fourth year has 2 papers. The pass paper has 4 parts:

Part 1—Subject for German composition "*Die Macht des Verspiels*". Part 2 gives lines from *Wilhelm Tell* and asks for a translation and a grammatical and critical analysis of the lines. Part 3 has a long German extract to be translated, followed by 18 grammatical questions. Part 4 is concerned with the history of German literature. Ex.: Into how many classes can German prose be arranged? Name them.

The honours paper has 2 long extracts in German to be translated, followed by questions on them.

The calendars for the following few years show but little differences either in the prescription of texts or the scope of examinations, but in 1868-69 some re-organization took place, for the degree could now be approached by either a fixed or variable course. The latter included German in the first year in company with classics, mathematics, English, French, chemistry, Hebrew and elements of natural history. German was necessary for those who substituted moderns for classics after the second year.

The new four year course was specified as follows:

First Year

Grammar (Tiarks'); Adler's *Reader*, Parts 1 and 2; History of German Literature (Gostwick, Periods 1, 2, 3, and 4); Goethe, *Hermann und Dorothea*, Canto II; Translation from English into German.

Second Year

Grammar (Tiarks'); Adler's *Reader*, Parts 3 and 4; History of German Literature (Gostwick, Period 5); Goethe, *Hermann und Dorothea*, (Cantos III, IV); Translation from English into German.

Third Year

Grammar (Tiarks'); Lessing, *Minna von Barnhelm*; History of German Literature (Gostwick, Period 6); Translation into German; Composition; Wieland, *Geschichte der Abderiten* (B.I.); Goethe, *Iphigenie auf Taurus*.

Fourth Year

Composition; Schiller, *Geschichte des Abfalls der Niederlande* B.I.; Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*; grammatical and critical analysis of act. V, sc. 2; History of German Literature (Gostwick, Period 7); La Motte Fouqué, *Sintram*; Schiller, *Maria Stuart*; Körner, *Epische Fragmenten*, *Unterlegte Texte*, *Gelegenheitsgedichte* and *Leyer und Schwert*.

The examination papers of 1872 indicate the scope of the ground covered in the new four year course. In the first year there are two papers—one pass and one honour:

The pass paper is divided into 3 parts.

Part 1 asks 8 grammatical questions. Ex.: State the fundamental rules of construction in German. Part 2 gives an extract in German to be translated, followed by 8 questions on the passage. Part 3 asks one question on German literature: Write notes on Martin Opitz, Gottsched, Lessing, etc.

The honours paper is divided into 3 parts.

The first and second are German extracts to be translated, followed by questions. The third is a piece of English to be translated into German—the most difficult German words being given in brackets.

In this same year the 3rd year has 3 papers, one having no particular designation, the second being designated as pass and honours, and the third purely honours.

First Paper. Part 1—Ten grammar questions. Part 2—German extract to be translated into English followed by 8 questions. Part 3—Long English passage to be translated into German.

The pass and honours paper calls for 9 questions on the history of German literature. This is followed by a passage in German to be translated into English. Part 3 contains a long paragraph in German to be translated, and a final question asks for a criticism of this passage in German.

The honours paper has 2 parts of German to be translated into English and grammatical questions to be answered, and the third part gives as a subject for composition, "Lessing, as Critic and Dramatist."

The fourth year has 4 papers, one designated as pass and honours, and two honours.

First Paper—Part 1—Ten grammatical questions. Parts 2 and 3—German passages to be translated into English followed by grammatical questions. Part 4—Subject for composition "The Influence of French on German Literature."

Pass and Honours Paper—Part 1—Ten questions on the history of German literature. Part 2 gives an extract in German to be translated into English, followed by a question asking for a note on the metre and any peculiarities in construction. Part 3 gives an extract in

German to be translated into English, followed by 2 questions: 1. Write a brief notice of the author in German. 2. Write notes explanatory of the meaning of the extract. *Honours Papers.* Each contains four difficult passages in German to be translated into English, followed by questions.

The examination papers for the first and second years remain much as before, but the character of the papers in the third and fourth year changes:

Third Year. There are 2 papers for honours and one for honours and scholarships. The first two contain German extracts for translation into English along with questions on the content. The honours and scholarships paper is divided into 2 parts. The first contains 6 questions on the formation of the German language. Ex.: Show the origin of the anomalous forms of the Mod. H.G. verbs—*gehen, stehen, mögen, wissen, können*. The second part deals with languages in general (5 questions). Ex. 1: What is the only true criterion of relationship between languages? Ex. 2: What are the relations between history and language? Give examples. Ex. 3: Classify the Teutonic languages and define their position in the Indo-Germanic family.

Fourth Year. There are 5 papers, but every one is an honours paper, four of them calling for translation from German into English. The first requires a composition in addition, the next two have 6 questions on German literature, and the fourth has several questions on the extract quoted. The fifth paper confines itself to an extract in Old German to be translated into modern German and English, and asks numerous questions on the formation of the language. Ex. 1: Define the nature of the following phonetic processes: *Steigerung, Brechung, Umlaut*, etc. Ex. 2: Trace the origin of the various

declensions of adjectives in Mod.H.G. and show in what the modern differs from the older usage.

Few changes requiring comment seem to have occurred for almost a decade. In 1877-78, however, we find set forth details of both the pass and honours courses:

First year requires the outlines of German Literature to the end of the 13th century (Metcalf's *History of German Literature*).

Second year requires outlines of German literature from Klopstock to the death of Goethe (Gostwick and Harrison's *Outlines*).

Fourth year German includes the literature of the 9th and 13th centuries and "Illustrations of Old and Middle High German." Max Müller's *German Classics*.

(The third and fourth years' courses are only for candidates for honours.)

For four years the situation in German appears to have remained static. Then in 1881-82 history of the Germanic language was added to the work of the fourth year. Two works are named for references: Helfenstein, *Comparative Teutonic Grammar*, with particular reference to Old Saxon, Anglo-Saxon and English as well as High and Low German; Hahn, *Middle High German Grammar*.

In the following session, 1882-83, we find that the history of the German language has been added to the programme of the third year.

Two more years pass by uneventfully. Whether any changes were made in 1885-86 we do not know, as the calendar for that year is missing, but with the advent of the session of 1886-87 considerable re-arrangements are evident in the work now prescribed:

First Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; outlines of the History of German Literature; Schiller, *Belagerung von Antwerpen*

(Clarendon Press Series); *Die Kraniche des Ibycus*; Goethe, *Knabenjahre* (Pitt Press Series); *Minor Poems* (Sonnenschein's Annotated German Classics).

Second Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; history of German literature (Goethe and Schiller); Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*; Lessing, *Lackoan*; Lessing, *Minna von Barnhelm*; Goethe, *Iphigenie auf Tauris*; history of German literature from Klopstock to Goethe inclusive.

Third Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; history of German literature in the 18th and 19th centuries; Schiller, *Thirty Years' War*, B. III; Goethe, *Goetz von Berlichingen*; conversation in German; Modern High German Grammar; Elements of Old and Middle High German Grammar (Hahn); Wackernagel, *Kleineres Alideutsches Lesebuch*; Otfrid, *Evangelienharmonie* Chap. XVIII; *Leich auf den Sieg König Ludwigs*; *Lied an die Jungfrau Maria*; Kürnberg, *Lieder*; *Isengrins Noth*; *Rolandslied*; Veldeke, *Arncide*, col. 117 to col. 124, line 4; Schleicher, *Deutsche Sprache*, pp. 1-132; study of literature of 16th and 17th centuries; Wackernagel, *Deutsches Lesebuch*; *Volkslieder*; Murner; Luther; Hans Sachs; Fischart; Nicolai; Opitz; Fleming; Logau; A. Gryphius; Zesen; Harsdörffer; Scheffler; Gerhardt; Lohenstein.

Candidates for honours will also be expected to show a reasonable acquaintance with the life of Goethe, to the end of the 18th century, and with the condition of German literature during the whole of that century, and to show evidence of having read his chief poems, romances and dramas produced before 1800, including the first part of *Faust*, as completed. The following works are recommended for special perusal: *Leiden des Jungen Werthers*; *Terquato Tasso*; *Hermann und Dorothea*; *Faust*, Part I;

Poems, Sonnenschein's *Selection*; *Römische Elegien*; *Venezianische Epigramme* (Hempel's edition of Goethe's works is recommended).

Fourth Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; history of German literature prior to the 18th century; Schiller, *Maria Stuart*; Goethe, *Dichtung und Wahrheit*; conversation in German; Old Middle and Modern High German Grammar; Schleicher, *Deutsche Sprache*; history of German literature prior to the 16th century; Wackernagel, *Kleineres Altdeutsches Lesebuch*; Hartmann, *Der arme Heinrich*; Walther von der Vogelweide; Freidank, *Von Künegen und Fürsten*; *Nibelungenlied*; *Liechtenstein*; *Osterspiel*; *Meistergesänge*; Sebastian Brandt; Myllius, *Passio Christi*; elements of the Gothic language; Skeat, *Gospel of St. Mark*, Introduction.

Candidates will also be required to show a reasonable acquaintance with the life of Goethe, and with the condition of German literature during and immediately before his time, and to give evidence of having read his chief poems, romances, and dramas, particularly those produced in the 19th century.

Candidates for honours are also recommended to read: *Faust*, part I, and acts 3 and 5 of part 2; *Wilhelm Meister's Lehrjahre*, bks. 5 and 6 and *Wanderjahre*, bk. 1; *Wahlverwandtschaften*; *Westöstlicher Divan*, bks. 8-12 (Hempel's edition recommended).

The examination papers for 1887 are missing, but those of 1888 indicate the type of test which was fashionable at the time.

The first year has three papers. The first is the author's paper with translation from German into English. The second is the grammar and composition with two English sections to be translated into German, one

for pass only and the other for honours only. The third is an honours paper with translation from German into English.

(A note at the top of this last named paper says: All candidates are required to attend on the morning of Wednesday, 16th inst. for examination in grammar and composition.)

The third year has 6 papers, two in pass German calling for translation from German into English and *vice versa*, grammar rules, literature, etc.

Two of the honours papers require translation from German into English. The third honours paper deals with the history of the language and old High German to be translated.

The sixth paper is an honours paper in German prose for candidates for B.A. and third year, and contains two long English extracts, only one of which is to be translated, followed by a composition to be written on one of three subjects suggested.

The fourth year has only 1 paper. Part 1 requires a translation of a German extract. Part 2 is similar. The extract is from Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, bk. XI. It is followed by three questions. Ex.: Give a brief summary of Goethe's account of the condition of German literature at the beginning of book X and of that of French literature in bk. XI. Part 3 is a paragraph in English to be translated into German. Part 4 asks 5 grammatical questions. Ex.: Define the use of the subjunctive mood in German.

In connection with the foregoing, it is of interest to observe the gradually rising tide of examination papers set each year. Taking the fourth year as an example we find that beginning with two papers in 1862—one pass and one honours—the number fluctuates, though with a tendency to rise till in 1881 five papers are prescribed.

After this date interest seems to have flagged, and in 1885 candidates face only three papers, and in 1888 a single paper was regarded as an adequate test! Seemingly this experiment was not deemed a success, for in the following year five papers were imposed—two pass and three honours. Once more the curve began to rise, and by 1893 no less than eight papers were set in the fourth year—two pass and six honours. Thereafter there is a decline in volume until we reach a low level of three honours papers in 1896, but in 1898 the pendulum was swinging slightly again the other way. Action and re-action, illusion and disillusion, seem to be the only lesson which can be derived from the practice of the sequent years.

Reverting to the history of the course itself, there is little change to be observed till 1891-92, when the body of work read was considerably reduced. In the first year pass three texts are prescribed: Moser, *Der Bibliothekar*; Schiller, *Egmonts Leben und Tod*, and Auerbach, *Auf Wache*. For first year honours three texts also were prescribed: Schiller, *Maria Stuart*; Lessing, *Minna von Barnhelm*; Musäus, *Stumme Liebe*.

The bulk of the reading in the three higher years was reduced in harmony with that of the first year.

The modification referred to above lasted till the year 1895-96, when the programme was once again re-cast. The most striking innovation this time was the elimination altogether of prescribed texts in the first year. The new arrangements may be outlined as follows:

In the *first year*, texts are done away with altogether. The work is to be grammar, dictation, and oral examination, translation from English into German; translation at sight from modern German; outlines of the history of German literature as follows: 1896 and 1898 to 1700, 1897 from 1700.

The *second year*, in addition to work similar to the first year, requires an examination on the following texts, 1896: Lessing, *Minna von Barnhelm*; Goethe (Golden Treasury Series); Kleist, *Michael Kohlhaas*; Freytag, *Aus dem Staat Friedrich des Groszen*. 1897: Lessing, *Emilia Galotti*; Bürger; Schiller, *Balladen* (Golden Treasury Series); Goethe, *Sesenheim*; Grimm, *Der Landschafsmaler*. 1898: Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*; Goethe, *Knabenjahre*; Meyer, *Gustav Adolphs Page*; Storm, *Immensee*.

Third Year: Grammar; an oral examination which shall also test the candidate's ability to carry on a simple conversation in German; translation at sight; translation from English into German, and an original essay in German; a general acquaintance with German literature from Gottsched to the death of Schiller with special reference to the following authors and works: 1896-98: Klopstock, selected odes; Wieland, *Oberon* 8 and 9; Lessing, *Prosa in Auswahl*, III, IV; Bürger, Schiller, *Balladen*, (Gold. Treas.); Herder, *Ausgewählte Dichtungen*, III, IV, V; Schiller, *Die Räuber*, *Wilhelm Tell*; Goethe, *Poems*, *Iphigenie*, *Hermann und Dorothea*; 1897: Klopstock, *Messias*, Canto II; Lessing, *Emilia Galotti*, *Nathan der Weise*; Herder, *Kleinere Prosaschriften* I, II, III; Schiller, *Lyrical Poems*; Goethe, *Götz von Berlichingen*; *Poems* (Hartleben, Goethe-Brevier), *Faust*, part I.

Fourth Year: Grammar, and oral examination as in the third year; translation at sight; translation from English into German; a general acquaintance with German literature from the death of Schiller to the present day, with special reference to the following authors and works: 1896 and 1898: Schiller, *Wallensteins Tod*; Goethe, *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, X and XI; Kleist, *Prinz von Homburg*; Heine, *Prose*; Freytag, *Soll und Haben*; Südermann, *Die Ehre*, *Wildenbruch*, *Neue Novellen*. 1897:

Schiller, *Braut von Messina*; Goethe, *Faust*, part 1, part 2, acts 3, 4, 5; Grillparzer, *Sappho*; Uhland, *Ballads* (Gold. Treas.); Heine, *Selected Poems*; Auerbach, *Diethelm von Buchenburg*; Scheffel, *Ekkehard*; Hauptmann, *College Crampton*; elements of High German grammar; history of Middle High German literature; an examination on the following texts: 1896 and 1898: selections from Walther von der Vogelweide and other Minnesingers. 1897: *Nibelungenlied*. History of the German Languages.

After 1897-98 pass and honours courses are listed separately. The prescription of work in grammar, composition and sight translation is the same for honours as for the general course, but the examination is of a more advanced character.

ITALIAN AND SPANISH

As indicated before, the calendar of 1857-58 gives the first precise information as to the work in Italian and Spanish offered in the University of Toronto. Italian appears in the third year, and both Italian and Spanish are given in the fourth year. As a matter of historical interest the relevant calendar statement is quoted from the *Courses of Study in Arts*.

Third Year—Greek and Latin, French, German and Italian, Hebrew and Chaldee, etc. (Undergraduates are not required to take both "Greek and Latin" and "French and German", but either at their option.)

Fourth Year—Greek and Latin, English, French, German, Italian and Spanish, Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac and Arabic, etc., etc. (Undergraduates may take at their option either "Greek and Latin" or "French and German", etc.)

Candidates for honours in "Modern Languages" are

not required to take, in addition to English, French, German, Italian and Spanish, but any three of them at their option.

Subjects of Instruction

Third Year — Italian — Grammar; Goldoni, *Il Burbero Benefico*.

Fourth Year — Italian — Tasso, *Gerusalemme Liberata*, Canto XII; Dante, *Inferno*, Cantos II, III, IV, V; translation into Italian; history of Italian literature (Sismondi's *Literature of the South of Europe*).

Spanish—Grammar; Quintana, *Vida del Cid*; Moratin, *El sí de las niñas*; translation into Spanish; history of Spanish literature (Sismondi's *Literature of the South of Europe*).

¹Comparison of etymological and grammatical forms in Latin, Provençal, French, Italian and Spanish (Sir J. Cornwall Lewis's *Origins and Formation of the Romance Languages*).

Some of the implications of this statement—though in this respect there is only a general resemblance to the 1857-58 college calendar—are somewhat difficult to interpret.

Apart from the substitution of one text for another, little change is observable in the work of Italian and Spanish till the session of 1866-67 when the policy of "fixed" and "variable" courses was adopted.

A brief description of the examination papers of 1859 will throw some light on the scope of the teaching of the early period.

Third Year—Italian—Honours and Scholarships. Part I: Grammatical questions (15). Ex. What

¹Only for candidates for honours.

does *questo*, what *cotesto* and what *quella* denote?

Part II: Translation into English of extract from a play followed by 17 questions on the text. Ex.: *Credo di no*. By what word would *di* be rendered in French?

Fourth Year—Italian—Honours and Scholarships. Part

I: Difficult paragraph in English to be translated into Italian. Part II: Selection from Dante's *Inferno* to be translated into English, followed by 15 questions on the text. Ex.: Explain what word or words in these 6 stanzas bear the closest connection to *senza infamia e senza lodo*; and to *cacciârli i ciel*, and give the reason. Part III: Selection from Tasso's *Gerusalemme Liberata*, the Italian to be set into a regular construction and then translated into English—followed by 18 questions on the text. Ex.: *Darlati*. Analyse and set the words in a regular order and translate. Part IV: Ten questions on the history of Italian literature. Ex.: Name the first 4 tragedies of Alfieri; characterize their style and state what effect they produced upon the literary history of Italy during the 18th century.

Spanish—Honours and Scholarships. Part I: Paragraph in English to be translated into Spanish. Part II: Nine grammatical questions. Ex.: Give an example in which the verbs *andar* and *ir* govern the verb that follows them in the gerund without a preposition. Part III: Paragraph from Quintana's *Vida del Cid* to be translated into English, followed by 10 questions. One question asks for a short notice of the Cid's life. Another asks for a comparison of this

language with Latin, Italian, French, German and English pointing out *all the most striking peculiarities* not common to any of them. The rest are grammatical questions. Part IV: Selection from Moratín's *El sí de las niñas* to be translated, followed by 12 grammatical questions. Ex. *ni nada de eso*. Fill up the ellipsis and explain. Part V: Four questions on the history of Spanish literature. Ex. Who are considered as the noblest ornaments of Spain as literary men?

On the institution of the "fixed" and "variable" courses, Italian and Spanish are found associated only with the latter. A candidate for honours in modern languages is required to take English and three of French, German, Italian and Spanish. As before, Italian is offered in the final two years, Spanish in the fourth year only. The prescription of work ran as follows:

Third Year—Italian: Grammar (Zotti's *Italian and French Grammar*); Goldoni, *La Villeggiatura*; Metastasio, *La Clemenza di Tito*.

Fourth Year—Italian: Translation from English into Italian; Manzoni, *I Promessi Sposi*; Tasso, *Gerusalemme Liberata*, Canto XII; Dante, *Inferno*, Cantos I to VII inclusive; Alfieri, *Agamennone*; history of Italian literature (Simondi's *Literature of the South of Europe*, as far as Chapter XV).

Spanish: Grammar (F. Sales') and translation from English into Spanish; Quintana, *Vida del Cid* and *El Gran Capitán*; Moratín, *El sí de las niñas*; history of Spanish literature (Simondi's *Literature of the South of Europe*, as far as Chapter XXX); comparison of etymological

and grammatical forms in Latin, Provençal, French, Italian and Spanish. (Sir J. Cornwall Lewis's *Origins and Formation of the Romance Languages*.) . . .

The examination papers of 1868 do not show any startling changes in ideals aimed at. There are, however, specific questions on Italian literary history: fourth year Italian has 2 papers for honours.

First Paper—Part I: Paragraph in English on virtue and vice to be translated into Italian. Part II: Long extract from Manzoni's *I Promessi Sposi* to be translated into English, followed by 8 grammatical questions on it. Part III: Four verses from Tasso's *Gerusalemme Liberata* to be translated into English, followed by 12 grammatical questions on it.

Second Paper—Part IV: Section from Dante's *Inferno* to be translated into English, followed by 13 questions referring to it. Ex.: Explain the measure in which this poem is written. Part V: Section from Alfieri's *Agamennone* to be translated into English, followed by 7 questions. Part VI: Twelve questions on the history of Italian literature.

It may be noted in passing that Professor Forneri resigned in 1868 as lecturer in Italian and Spanish. He was replaced for the following session by W. G. Falconbridge, who was succeeded in 1869 by Dr. W. Oldright. The latter remained in charge of the work till 1883, when Mr. D. R. Keys, now professor emeritus of English, carried on till 1887, when with the appointment of the late Professor W. H. Fraser, who was to remain at the head of the department until 1916, Italian and Spanish were transferred to the University.

There is meantime relatively little to comment on in the development of the work. It may be noted, however, that De Vere's *Spanish Grammar* was adopted in 1869-70; that the "variable" course seems to have been suppressed in 1873-74, the regulations, however, touching Italian and Spanish remaining the same.

In 1885-86 Italian was made a subject for second year honours, and, after eight years of banishment, Spanish returns triumphant to the curriculum and is now found in both third and fourth years.

Italian—Second Year—Grammar; Goldoni, *Il vero Amico*; translation from English into Italian of sentences similar to those given in the *Italian Principia*.

Third Year—Silvio Pellico, *Le Mie Prigioni*; Metastasio, *La Clemenza di Tito*; Tasso, *La Gerusalemme Liberata*, Canto I; translation of unspecified passages from easy Italian authors; a paper on grammar; writing Italian from dictation; translation from English into Italian; history of Italian literature; for reference: *Encyclopaedia Britannica* article on Italian Literature.

Fourth Year—Leopardi, *Operette Morali*; Alfieri, *Oreste*; Dante, *Inferno*, Cantos I-XVII; translation of unspecified passages from modern Italian authors; a paper on grammar; writing Italian from dictation; translation from English into Italian; history of Italian literature.

Spanish—Third Year—Knapp's *Spanish Grammar* (candidates taking both Italian and Spanish may omit the Pass Civil Polity, but where only one of these languages is pursued Civil Polity must be taken).

Fourth Year—Knapp's *Spanish Reader*; Moratín, *El sí de las niñas*; translation of unspecified passages

from easy Spanish authors; a paper on grammar; writing Spanish from dictation; translation from English into Spanish; history of Spanish literature; for reference: Helen Conant, *Primer of Spanish Literature*.

With respect to the concurrent examinations: In 1881 the Italian papers began to contain some elementary questions on general Romance grammar.

The content of the Spanish papers of 1886 subsequent to the reappearance of this language on the curriculum was as follows:

Third Year—One paper. Part I: Twenty sentences to be translated into Spanish. Part II: Translation from Spanish into English, followed by 5 questions. Part III: Two paragraphs in English to be translated into Spanish.

Fourth Year—One paper. Part I: Extract from Castelar to be translated followed by 3 questions. Part II: Extract from *El sí de las niñas*, to be translated, followed by 3 questions. Part III: Extract from *Don Quixote* to be translated. Part IV: Paragraph of English to be translated into Spanish. Part V: Four questions on literature. Ex. Compare the Spanish drama of the 16th and 17th centuries with that of England during the same period.

The fourth year Spanish paper in 1889 introduces a novelty in the form of optional questions: out of the five questions set on literature candidates are allowed to select any three.

The year 1890-91 marks a new advance in the development of Italian and Spanish, for a full four years of Italian are now offered, and also three years of Spanish. The new prescriptions are detailed as follows:

Italian—First Year—Grammar; composition; De Amicis, *Cuore (I Racconti Mensili)*.

Second Year—Grammar; composition; translation of unspecified passages; Goldoni, *Il vero Amico*; Salvatore Farina, *Il Signor Io*; Ariosto, *Orlando Furioso*, Cantos 1-4.

Third Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; history of Italian literature; Silvio Pellico, *Le Mie Prigioni*; Metastasio, *La Clemenza di Tito*; Tasso, *La Gerusalemme Liberata*, Canto 1.

Fourth Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; history of Italian literature; Leopardi, *Operette Morali*; Alfieri, *Oreste*; Dante, *Inferno*, Cantos I-XVII.

Spanish is made a three year course.

Second Year—Knapp's *Spanish Grammar*.

Third Year—Knapp's *Spanish Grammar*.

Fourth Year—Grammar; dictation; composition; translation of unspecified passages; Knapp's *Spanish Reader*; Moratín, *El sí de las niñas*; history of Spanish literature.

NOTE.—Candidates in the honours department of modern languages are allowed an option between (1) ethnology and (2) Italian and Spanish in their fourth year.

Candidates in Italian, now extending over four years—though still an honours course only—were asked to write on two papers in the first year, three in the second year, two in the third year, and three papers in the fourth year. In general the papers were divided along the lines of grammar, authors and history of literature. It is interesting to note in addition the appearance in the third and fourth years of dictation tests. The fourth year

Spanish paper contains a similar test in dictation. The second year Spanish paper of 1892 calls for a phonetic transcription of a Spanish passage and for a classification (Sweet's preferred) of the sounds denoted by the italicized letters in the passage and a description of their organic formation. Questions on phonetics appear regularly from this date forward.

In 1892-93 we observe new types of texts to be read, for instance: Pérez Galdós, *Doña Perfecta*; Lope de Vega, *La Estrella de Sevilla*; Calderón, *La vida es sueño*; and last but not least interesting, Keller's *Altspanisches Lesebuch*.

The chief feature to be noted in the contemporaneous examinations is the growth in the number of final papers. In 1893, for example, in the fourth year there were no less than 5 papers in both Italian and Spanish. The questions in the two languages are of the same general character: translation from Italian into English; the rewriting in modern Italian of a selection from the older literature; questions on Italian literature, options being provided; recognition of archaic forms; versification and scansion; translation from English into Italian; free composition in Italian—four subjects to choose from—and dictation. In 1895-96 Spanish, though still open only to honours students, is put on the same footing as Italian, and, appearing in the first, is offered on the basis of a full four years of instruction.

The year 1895-96 sees the institution of options for honours students in modern languages. This arrangement is prescribed in the calendar of that session as follows:

First Year—Italian or Spanish.

Second Year—Italian or Spanish.

Third Year—Italian or Spanish or Modern History (the last option for specialist standing, Education Dept.)

Fourth Year—Old English or Italian or Spanish or Honour
Modern History together with a paper on
Historical English.

As a sequence of the new equality of Italian and Spanish, the examination in phonetics now common to all the languages concerned was placed within the first year. Oral tests in both Italian and Spanish were imposed also. In the fourth year term work consisting of an essay on a subject connected with the work of the department was now for the first time required. The marks made in this essay were to be counted in calculating the final standing of the candidate.

It may be noted that while the senior work in Italian and Spanish included certain continuous selections from the great authors, for instance, 21 cantos from the *Divina Commedia* and 12 chapters from *Don Quixote*, the courses were substantially of the "survey" type; sample relevant texts used were Torraca's *Manuale* and the *Curso* of Giner de los Ríos.

During the following eight years few changes of moment are to be observed in either the work prescribed or in the type of examination imposed. It will, however, be noted that the cult of numerous final papers was in obvious decline. By 1898 two papers had replaced the five fourth year papers of 1893.

After the turn of the century Spanish was evidently growing in popularity, as in 1903-04 it was made available throughout all four years for pass students for whom it became compulsory to choose any two of Greek, French, German, Spanish and Hebrew. In 1910 Italian was added to the general or pass course, and one option was now required from Greek, Hebrew, German, French, Italian and Spanish.

In more recent years two significant innovations are

to be recorded: the first of these was the institution in the Department of Italian and Spanish of graduate work in 1909, and the second the initiation in 1923 of lectures, open to third and fourth year honours students, by natives on the history and literature of Italy, Spain and South America.

VICTORIA COLLEGE, TORONTO

The earliest printed record of the courses of study of Victoria College (at Cobourg, 1836-1892; Toronto, 1892-), or, as it was then called, Upper Canada Academy, is contained in the circular of the academy for the year 1840. Under the head of modern languages we find the following:

Modern Languages

FRENCH

Lévizac's *Grammar* (Bolmar's edition); Bolmar's *Colloquial Phrases*; Le Brun's *Télémaque*, *Charles XII*, *Histoire de France*.

SPANISH

Cubí's *Grammar*; *El Traductor Español*; *Don Quixote*; Newman's *Dictionary*.

ITALIAN

Vergani's or Graglia's *Grammar*; Graglia's *Dictionary*; Soave's *Novelle Morali*; Tasso's *Gerusalemme Liberata*.

GERMAN

Fosdick's *Grammar*; Weber's *Dictionary*; Bokum's *Introduction and German Reader*.

We do not know to what extent this ambitious programme, as far as the modern languages were concerned,

was carried out. Perhaps it was something in the nature of a device, not entirely unknown in modern times, called window-dressing, but from an account in the *Christian Guardian* of April 28, 1841, we know that students were examined, amongst other things, in "Latin, Greek, French Grammar and Classics", presumably French Classics.

Even before this date, in the issue of April 29, 1840, the *Christian Guardian* gave an account, in the form of an extract from a letter by the Rev. John Manley, of the fourth annual examination of the Upper Canada Academy which was held on Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, the 14th, 15th, and 16th inst. From this description we take the following extracts:

"The examinations on Wednesday embraced spherical trigonometry and conic sections, arithmetic, universal history, algebra, first and second classes, geology, English grammar, Greek reader, Latin reader, physiology, natural philosophy and French. . . . The classes on this day in universal history, physiology, and French, and one class in English grammar, consisted of ladies. . . .

"On Thursday the annual exhibition (as it is termed) was held. . . . Next followed a Hebrew declamation by C. Tolkien, an address on Russian cruelty to Poland, well depicted, by M. P. Roblin, a French declamation by R. B. Warren, and music."

Dr. Burwash, in his *History of Victoria College* (p. 62), makes the following remark:

"When, therefore, in Upper Canada Academy a programme was offered of a four years' course beyond the common school, and including such subjects as natural history and botany, natural philosophy, chemistry, physiology, astronomy, algebra, geometry, natural theology, evidences of Christianity, intellectual philo-

sophy, rhetoric and composition, as well as a good course in general and English history, and two or three years in modern languages, there was instituted an entirely new departure for Upper Canada in the education of the daughters of the land."

In a letter written by Rev. Mr. Ryerson to Sir Charles Bagot, then Governor-General of Canada, and dated September 10, 1842, there is the following interesting paragraph:

"Your Excellency will, therefore, see that more than double duty is performed by the officers employed in this institution. I do not propose to lessen their duties, or to increase their salaries. I do not see how we can do either. But I do wish to employ a teacher of French and German; and I do wish to purchase a few philosophical instruments and some books, as the commencement of a library."

And in a return made to the provincial secretary a couple of months later, December 20, 1842, he speaks as follows:

"By the accompanying return, it will furthermore be seen, that there is no teacher of French, or German languages in the College. This deficiency is a great disadvantage to the institution, and a serious loss to many of the pupils, who are desirous of studying—especially the French language—and the study of which, (independently of its being regarded as a valuable literary accomplishment) is, I think, very important to all Canadian youths who are likely to take a part in the public affairs of United Canada."

It appears, however, that although there was no professor of modern languages in the College at that time, one at least of the languages was taught by someone on the staff. In the curriculum for 1841 the extra charge for "French and other modern languages" per term was

£1:10. In the calendar for 1845 French is prescribed for both the freshman and the sophomore classes, and from that date on has its regular place on the curriculum.

In July, 1851, Mr. Van Dusen made an official return as treasurer of the College, from which the following extract may be taken:

"In September, 1850, the following appointments were made, *videlicet*, (2) Mr. Wesley P. Wright, A.B., professor of modern languages and also of chemistry. Salary £100 per annum."

This, so far as is known, is the first appointment at Victoria of a professor of modern languages.

An interesting sidelight on the study of modern languages would be the texts and grammars used during these early years. The writer has tried to collect some of these early text-books, but has been far from successful in getting anything like a complete list. It may be of interest, too, to certain departments, to note that in the "Course of Study" of the scientific department leading to the degree of B.Sc. for the year 1877 and other years, French was prescribed for the first and second years, and German for the third and fourth years. The fourth year German included Schiller's *Die Jungfrau von Orleans* and Goethe's *Faust*, with Metcalfe's *History of German Literature* and exercises in composition. This programme, with variations in the texts, was carried on for some years. Then German was made compulsory for the second year as well. In '82, German and French were made compulsory for all four years of the scientific course. Since 1888 the curriculum has been identical with that of the University of Toronto, with which Victoria College became federated.

The teaching staff of Victoria College consists of six

members in French: two professors, two associate-professors, one lecturer and one special lecturer; and in German of four: one professor, one associate professor, one lecturer and one fellow.

—A. E. LANG,
Victoria College, Toronto.

TRINITY COLLEGE

Owing to the present inaccessibility of calendars immediately preceding that for the year 1871 it is not possible to assign an earlier date for the beginnings of the teaching of modern languages in the college. The heading "Lectures in Modern Languages" then appeared, followed by the announcement: "Lectures are given in French twice a week by Monsieur Pernet, and prizes are awarded according to the result of an annual examination."

Mr. Pernet was the lecturer in French at University College. In both colleges, and in several ladies' schools in the city, he continued to teach down to the close of the session 1882-1883. He was described in the calendar also as examiner at Trinity College School, Port Hope, at which, in 1875, he offered a prize for proficiency in the French verbs. It appears, too, that he was the author of a *French Grammar* which, prior to 1875, was used in the school side by side with De Fivas' *Grammaire des Grammaires*.

Notwithstanding the heading "Lectures in Modern Languages", German as a subject of study does not make its appearance in the college calendar till 1883-1884. On the other hand, a man with the very German name of Hoch is advertised for several years from 1871 onwards as giving instruction in the college on "Drawing and the Fine Arts".

In the same year, which saw the revival of the medical

department of the college and a notable reorganization of medical teaching, the college announced both French and German as subjects for matriculation in the case of medical students. Neither language, however, was compulsory, each of them being an option for Greek or for natural philosophy. A note set forth that "Students are recommended to select as an option natural philosophy or one of the modern languages".

Down to 1876, apparently, French was purely optional in the college. Then was made the announcement: "And the marks are added to the other marks obtained in the annual examination in arts."

The calendar of 1877 became more explicit, making it clear that French was thenceforward to be a subject in the pass examinations in all the years of the arts course. Only grammar and a portion or portions of some standard French author or authors were prescribed. Souvestre's *Un philosophe sous les toits*, which was to be used again and again for a score of years or more, was then prescribed for the first time.

In 1882-1883, Dr. Body then being provost, the calendar contained a "Note" to the effect that "The examination in French is optional, but the marks assigned to it are reckoned in the determination of [matriculation] scholarships, and as it forms part of the subsequent examinations, candidates are recommended to take it." Later on are recorded for the first time names of winners of prizes and scholarships in French in the first, second, and third years in the session 1881-1882.

In the next calendar (1883-1884) further traces of Dr. Body's reforming ideas begin to manifest themselves in the arrangements for matriculation and in those for the arts course itself. As to the former, "Candidates", according to an "N.B.", are required to pass in classics

and mathematics and in one of the departments, divinity, English, or French, but the marks in all the departments will be counted in the determination of the scholarships in 1883; but in 1884, and in subsequent years, a candidate will be allowed to take only two of these three latter departments."

"Any candidate for matriculation", it was added, "will be exempted from examination in Latin, mathematics, French, or English, on producing a certificate from the proper authorities that he has passed satisfactorily in the intermediate examination of collegiate institutes and high schools, in the subject or subjects in respect of which he claims exemption."

In the primary (or first year) examination, one of French, German, or oriental languages was to be taken in addition to the obligatory subjects, divinity, classics, mathematics, and physical science; in the previous (or second) year examination, besides the three compulsory subjects, divinity, classics, and physical science, three of the optional subjects, French, German, oriental languages, history, mental philosophy, mathematics, provided that either the last or the last but one should be taken. In the final (or third year) examination, modern languages and literature (French and German) became one of the five special pass courses, any of which might be offered for the degree in conjunction with the necessary subjects, divinity and classics.

In this calendar appears the first reference to the admission of women to examinations but, seemingly, not to degrees. After the manner of women at Cambridge at the present day, they were to receive only certificates of standing.

To women, Italian was open as a subject for matriculation as well as for the primary, the previous, and the

final. At matriculation they had an option, on the one hand, among Greek, German, and Italian and, on the other, among divinity, French, and English. In the previous two of the four languages, Greek, German, Italian, and French, were required; and in the final two of the three, German, Italian, and French, Greek being set as an option over against physical science. At matriculation and in the primary it is interesting to note that elementary harmony could be substituted for mathematics other than arithmetic.

The equating one modern language with Greek, which had been allowed as early as 1871 in the programme for the medical matriculation, was recognized also in these courses for women. Such continued to be the case for several years, though at the same time the men who did not know Greek had to take as an equivalent for it both French and German.

So far as modern languages are concerned, the calendar of 1884 is remarkable from the fact that prose, sight translation, and the history of literature began to be prescribed. Historical grammar also was required of candidates, there being as yet no honours courses.

In 1887 there were prescriptions of honours work for matriculation. Those for the undergraduate course made their appearance only in 1889, after the establishment of St. Hilda's College for Women, to whom the degrees in arts were thrown open in 1889.

The honours prescriptions mentioned in connection with the calendar of 1887 were by no means heavy. They did not absolve scholarship candidates from the necessity of taking Greek.

In the first year all undergraduates were counted as pass men, even those who were registered for honours. In consideration of the honours work a man was relieved

of one of the necessary pass subjects. On obtaining a first class in proficiency, he was allowed to devote himself exclusively to his honours work with the exception of divinity, which nowadays is called religious knowledge.

Under the arrangements just described the honours work in classics was counted as equal to pass French, pass German, pass Hebrew, pass physical science, or pass natural science. On the other hand, the pass man pure and simple, if he had no acquaintance with Greek, had to take both French and German.

At the primary examination for honours in modern languages, which included only French and German, candidates had to be acquainted with Brachet's *Historical French Grammar* and with Helfenstein's *Comparative Grammar*. At the previous and the final examination they had to be able to translate *La Chanson de Roland*, *Old French Lyrics*, Heinrich von Aue's *Der arme Heinrich*, Walther von der Vogelweide's poems, *Rolandslied*, and Sweet's *Anglo-Saxon Primer*, in addition to familiarizing themselves with the works of Molière and Hugo, Goethe and Lessing. Conversation in the two languages began also to be required.

Generally speaking, these lines were followed down to 1892, after the appointment of a new lecturer in succession to Mr. J. Cunningham Dunlop, M.A., who died shortly before Christmas, 1891. A few additions or changes in the prescription of texts naturally took place from time to time. Italian, which had been open only to women, was made available in certain cases for men also as a pass option, with French or German, over against Greek. With the general adoption at matriculation of two modern languages as jointly the equivalent for Greek, women gradually lost their right to offer Italian alone for that purpose.

The tendency to grant no privileges to women which were not also open to men was carried to its full extent in 1895-6. Italian, which had been restricted to women, ceased to be a subject for matriculation altogether. It ceased also to be a pass subject in the undergraduate course, and it became an integral part of the honours course in all three of the years.

Dictation and other oral work were required of both pass and honours undergraduates; and, as had been the custom from the time of the institution of the honours course, honours candidates were required to read also the pass work in both French and German. To the honours work historical grammar was restricted. The older periods of the language and literature were prescribed for the final examination only.

In 1897 essays in French and German on set subjects were required and the marks assigned for them were counted as equal to those of two papers.

Owing to the large numbers of lectures per week entailed upon the one lecturer, it was arranged that in the majority of the pass and honour subjects in the French and German for the previous and final examinations, he should combine the classes, taking in one academic year the seventeenth century prescription and in the other the eighteenth and nineteenth. This economy of time and effort continued down to, or later than, 1903, when a second lecturer was appointed. Then the senior lecturer, to whom in 1900 the title of professor had been given, confined himself to German and Italian, the new lecturer taking over the French.

On the federation agreement with the University of Toronto coming into force in the autumn of 1904, Italian commenced to disappear as a college subject. This it quite ceased to be in 1906 with the graduation of

the last class that had entered under the old Trinity curriculum.

In 1907, when all the honours people of every description were working under the rules of the University of Toronto, a professor of French was appointed. Ever since that time the departments of French and German have had a separate organization consonant with that of the new order brought about by federation. At the present time the latter has a professor and an associate professor; the former has a professor, an associate professor, a lecturer, and a part-time instructor.

—A. H. YOUNG,
Trinity College.

McMASTER UNIVERSITY

At the opening of the faculty of arts in 1890 French and German were included in the course for the bachelor's degree. One professor, who had had training in Quebec and Germany, was charged with the instruction in both languages.

During the war, the minister of education for Ontario required the university to offer courses in Italian and Spanish in order that no undergraduate should be compelled to study German against his will. However, as the latter language is called for more largely than Italian or Spanish in the high schools and collegiate institutes of Ontario, German was not dropped by undergraduates, though a number added Spanish to their list of studies. Although Italian has not appeared officially on the curriculum of McMaster, the language has been given by successive instructors in French as a private course for such students as were interested.

The course for the degree of B.A. requires of all students (except those in special science, special mathematics, and

physics) two foreign languages in the first two years, one of which must be Latin or Greek, and the second of which must be continued for four years. For the great majority of undergraduates these two are Latin and French; Latin for two years and French for four. It will be noted, therefore, that the classical languages, in that either Latin or Greek is a compulsory subject, are given a privileged position for the first two years.

There is offered to all students one course (a major of two hours a week) in French, German, and Spanish in each of the four years. A qualified student may, however, elect to do more in either French or German, and such a student must take all the courses, namely, thirteen: seven majors and six minors. The minors include oral work, advanced composition and phonetics. In Spanish four majors only are offered.

For students who enter without German there is an introductory class, which does not, however, count for the degree, but which prepares for first year German, and is reasonably equivalent to German of matriculation.

The teaching personnel in modern languages in McMaster University consists of two professors—one responsible for the work in German and one for the courses in French and Spanish.

—W. S. W. McLAY,
McMaster University.

QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY

Modern languages first appear in the calendar of Queen's University for the session 1870-71. In that year the professor of history and English was appointed also lecturer in modern languages: two years of instruction were offered in French, known as junior and senior French, and placed in the second and third years of the

four-year course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts. German was optional and was offered in the fourth year. The weight attached to the new study is indicated by the scale of marks, which assigned 1,000 points to each of classics, modern languages, and natural science, and 2,000 marks to natural philosophy and metaphysics.

Junior French was allotted three hours a week. The recognized grammar was De Fivas' and the prescribed text Voltaire's *Histoire de Charles XII*. Senior French occupied only two hours of the lecturer's time, but exhibited a marked philological tendency. Students read, in translation, Diez' *Grammar of the Romance Languages*, and the literary side of the syllabus comprised Corneille's *Cinna* and Voltaire's *Zaïre*.

Little change appears to have taken place in the position and content of modern language studies during the seventies. In 1878-79 the candidate for an arts degree had to take not less than one session in French or German or junior Hebrew; in that year the syllabus mentions French literature and the philology of the Romance languages.

In 1880-81 modern languages were important enough to be put in charge of a teaching officer who devoted most of his time to the work, and the first mention of honours courses in moderns appears in the calendar. French and German now became one subject as far as degree requirements were concerned, and could only be avoided by students electing Latin and Greek; otherwise they were obliged to take German and French with Latin or Greek. So also in the matriculation examination, which was designed to test the schoolboy's fitness to proceed to an institution of higher learning, the candidate had to prove his knowledge of English, mathematics, Latin, and Greek, with an alternative of offering French *and* German, in

place of *one* of the ancient languages. This fact is important for the understanding of the early position of modern studies; they were apparently regarded as being educationally rather light, and an attempt was made to remedy the defect by insisting on two languages for one and adding to the upstart moderns the weight and dignity of philological science. So the prescription for senior matriculation included a play of Corneille and a chapter from Sir J. C. Lewis' *Essay on Romance Language*.

The university course of that year (1880-81) began to extend its scope; junior French read modern novels and an *Abrégé de l'Histoire de France*, while the prescription for the senior class concerned itself definitely with classical French; three plays were read and there were works on the period of Louis XIV, the history of French literature, and that of the French language. Candidates for honours added two plays and made a more detailed study of the 18th century. The syllabus in German was of a similar type.

In the early eighties the same tendency was observable in prescription and examination. In 1881-82 the calendar mentions Schleicher, *Die Deutsche Sprache*; Brachet, *Grammaire historique*; Littré, *Histoire de la Langue française*. In the same year the examination in junior French invited the candidates to "name the dialects of the langue d'oïl" and to "lay down some rules for the permutation of consonants in the transfer from Latin to French." If this did not appeal to their imagination they might show the influence of the tonic accent in Latin in the formation of French words.

In 1882-83 modern languages were promoted to the status of a department, and the rubric occurs in the calendar: "In all the examinations of this department passages will be set for translation from works not speci-

fied. No candidate shall be entitled to first-class honours unless the examiners be satisfied of his ability to maintain a conversation in these languages." In the following year the various honours courses were outlined and their place in the curriculum defined; students whose interest lay mainly in modern studies could now specialize in their third and fourth university years, when they took honours courses in French and German, English and history, together with a junior class in physics and in philosophy. An obligatory year in philosophy was traditional in Queen's. Philology continued to be taught in the pass classes, and the history and etymology of the French language were prescribed for students in senior (*i.e.*, second year) French.

In the later eighties the position of moderns appears to have been greatly strengthened; the number of students increased and the prescription of studies grew longer, especially in the honours classes. In 1887-88 tutors were appointed in French and German, and in 1889-90 the department was headed by an instructor of professorial rank, with specific qualifications for the work. This event marks the beginning of an important period in the history of modern studies in the university.

Under the new régime the syllabus was considerably extended. The calendar for 1890-91 prescribed for junior French, *Le Cid*, three modern plays, two novels, unspecified authors, and the usual linguistic study. Senior French comprised two classical plays, four modern, two novels, etc. In the two years of honours work the assigned books covered eleven plays of the 17th and 18th centuries, four of the 19th century, together with ten works of fiction or criticism, a certain amount of poetry and some old French. In this year a detailed statement of requirements for the degree of Ph.D. in modern languages was

set forth and formed part of the calendar for many years. The department soon began to attract students in increased numbers. While the honours lists show only nine successful candidates in modern languages for the ten years 1880-89, the number had arisen to 12 for the session 1892-93. In the following year the course leading to specialists' certificates appeared in the syllabus, and there was an increase in the number of women registered in modern languages. In the nineties Italian was studied only by candidates for the medal, but Spanish attained a considerable degree of popularity, and in 1902 there were some thirty students of this language. Inspection of examination papers for this period indicates that students were required to read large assignments in both the major languages, were expected to translate long and difficult passages into French and German, and to answer a wide selection of questions on literature and history. Lectures were given largely in the foreign language, and parts of the examination in literature were required to be answered in the same. In 1896 a passage of dictation is prescribed for senior matriculants. In the university examinations oral capacity was tested with some strictness, and extra-mural students were obliged to undergo the same tests at the various centres, and advised to secure competent instruction. In later years such students were required to attend a language class during their period of residence, before receiving full credit. This regulation still stands.

By 1900 the department had been increased in numbers by the appointment of two tutors; there were 62 pass students in French and 52 in German. In honours, 17 women and 4 men were taking French, while in German there were 21 women and 5 men. French and German were still one unit as far as academic credit was concerned.

The discrepancy in numbers is due to students reading one or other of the languages for their own cultural satisfaction.

Beginning with the session of 1903-04 an important change was effected by the appointment of a professor of romance languages and the establishment of a separate department. There is a change in the syllabus, and the prescription of work in French indicates a broadening of the cultural aspect of the study. Short courses of lectures are announced dealing with special topics, sometimes of a historical or critical nature: such were, "Early French literature in connection with the society of the times," "Theory and rules of tragedy and comedy," etc. About this time German began to lose its popularity as a school and university subject in Ontario, and enrolments show an overwhelming majority of students in French: by 1911-12 there were 393 in French and 141 in German, about one-seventh of whom were taking honours. The staff in German consisted of one professor, one tutor, and an associate professor who was also working in French. The staff of the department of romance languages then consisted of one professor, the aforesaid associate, one assistant professor, one lecturer and two tutors.

For the session 1914-15 a new appointment was made of an assistant professor with special charge of Italian and Spanish. The latter language soon resumed its place in the syllabus and could be elected as a junior class in two of the arts courses, though as yet excluded from the course described as literary, and not listed among the options for the specialists' certificate.

During the war years there was little organic change in the language departments. Students of German decreased in numbers, partly for patriotic reasons and partly because Spanish could be elected as a second

language. Students in French took more interest in the oral side of the work.

In the session of 1920-21 the style and system of "junior and senior classes, preliminary and final honours" were abolished, and Queen's lost a link with the nomenclature of her Scottish *alma mater*. The unit now became a course, with a number and descriptive title, and teaching time in the pass courses was reduced from five hours a week to three, but was slightly increased for honours. This reduction of teaching hours was expected to be offset by wider reading and more thorough study on the part of first and second year students, but the case has not proved to be noticeably so.

The new arrangement brought with it certain changes in the organization of language teaching. The new three hour unit or course, which is not to be confused with the "course" which covers all the units of credit offered in satisfaction of the requirements for a degree, proved to be useful in codifying the instruction offered by the department. Since the introduction of the new scheme, honour students have a certain latitude of choice among various courses dealing with special periods, individual authors, or literary *genres* but such groupings had, of course, been perfectly feasible under the old nomenclature, and no language department has a large enough staff to offer much in the way of alternative courses. An important feature of the new plan lies in its requirement of reading courses, which draw up a scheme of controlled reading to suit the needs of individual students. Along with this change an unsuccessful movement was started to establish an honours examination covering the general field of each department's studies, without reference to the units composing the students' work in that department. Experiments were made in the conducting of oral

examinations in the literature of each language, but results were discouraging and sometimes painful, and the attempt was abandoned.

Post-war re-organization did not stop with the establishment of the three hour unit. There was general expansion in language teaching; the department of German changed its name to "Germanic Languages and Literatures" and added a course in Dutch and Scandinavian, which can be offered for credit under certain conditions. The department of French raised its standard of oral attainment and appointed a native tutor to work with small groups of honours students. A new department was created to take over the teaching of Italian and Spanish.

The wave of enthusiasm for the study of Spanish that had swept the continent had its effect, and the department was soon called upon to organize a correspondence course for bankers and others having business relations with South America. Enrolment of arts students was heavy, and a few science men came in with a view to practical work for professional ends. By 1920 Spanish, with its inclusion in a specialists' course, had acquired full rights as a subject of academic study and is now on equal terms with French and German in all elective courses. Italian is less in demand, but can be offered for credit in two of the pass courses.

The place of modern languages in the curriculum of the faculty of arts is as follows:

All students except those whose main interests lie in mathematics and science (group III) take Latin for one or two years, and a modern language or Greek for two years. Students working in group III take two years of a modern language, or may substitute a year of Latin for one of them.

A student will continue his modern language work

beyond its second university year under various conditions. He may (1) add a single language course as one of the free electives provided for in arranging his schedule, or, (2) make his minor or major in a language, taking two or three additional courses in it, or, (3) proceed to honours in one or two modern languages, taking four or five courses in each during the third and fourth year. If he desires specialist standing under the Ontario department of education his choice of studies is definitely prescribed. If not, he may combine a modern language with work in any other department of the faculty of arts, subject to the approval of the board of studies. Italian, Spanish and Scandinavian may be counted towards a degree as optional subjects, but of these three only Spanish may be taken as a major, minor or honour subject. Italian and Spanish may both be counted towards a degree, but honours students in Spanish may substitute one course of Italian for one of their lecture courses in Spanish. Students in the combined course in arts and applied science take two years in French or German.

The pass courses and some of the honours courses of all the language departments are open to extra-mural students who follow as far as possible the schedule of work laid down for the session, and write the same examinations. Oral tests must be passed by all students, and extra-murals are required in addition to attend the lectures of one of the pass courses in which they desire credit, but this may be done before or after writing the course examination.

UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO

Since the opening of the University of Western Ontario (formerly Western University of London, Ontario) in 1878, French has occupied a place in the curriculum.

The student body, however, for a considerable time was small and the service of one lecturer sufficed till 1885, at which date for a period of ten years the faculty of arts was suspended. In the year following the resumption of work the appointment was made of a professor of modern languages whose duties included instruction in French, German and Italian. Both honours and pass French have been taught continuously since that time. Though Italian was listed in the calendar of 1898-99 no work seems to have been done for a few years following, due to lack of students. Courses of instruction in Italian, honours and pass, were offered till 1917-18. In this same session Spanish was introduced as an extension course, but in 1918-19 was offered in the first and second years; and by 1921-22 all four collegiate years of Spanish were being taught at Western.

During the early period of the history of the University of Western Ontario, it was the avowed policy of the staff to keep courses and instruction as nearly as possible identical or comparable with those of the University of Toronto. Owing to lack of equipment, little natural science was attempted, but courses in language and literature were maintained at a good level. Though much more independence has been shown during the last ten years or thereabouts in the arrangement of courses, methods and texts, care has been taken to keep the standard well up to that required by the provincial department of education for teachers' certificates.

Since the department of Romance languages became distinct from that of modern languages in 1917 several marked tendencies can be noted:

1. The broadening of the scope of the courses, especially in the increasing emphasis placed on Old French and the literature of the sixteenth century. Two hours per week

throughout the four years are now given in this field. A course in French civilization has been added and the general value of the course increased by optional courses and a number of alternate courses. The demand for Italian has fallen off but the introduction of a complete four year course in Spanish has more than offset this loss. Due to the increase in the number of the staff it has become possible, with greatly improved results, to assign each part of the honour work to a specialist. The modern literary period has especially benefited for this reason.

2. There has been a decided attempt to better the oral part of the work, particularly in honour courses. Ability to understand spoken French and to use it in conversation is insisted upon in the case of honour students. Certain courses are conducted entirely in the language being studied. Additional practice is provided by the organization of a "Cercle Français" and the giving of plays in French. The appointment of a native French instructor has been of great importance also in this part of the work.

3. The amount of prescribed work has shown a tendency to increase. The number of text books has become greater as also the amount of reading done of a collateral and reference nature. The quantity of reading now required is quite heavy. These additional demands are reflected in the recent increase in hours shown by the calendars.

It may be added that in oral work three chief difficulties have confronted the staff, namely:

The first is the variation in the ability of the students entering the university to comprehend spoken French. Some students are quite unable to understand the colloquial language though at the same time able to read and write fairly well. Others, who have been trained by

the oral method, can easily accommodate themselves to a continuation of the same method.

In the second place, the reading requirements and the work in composition usually take up so much time that it is difficult to find an opportunity for as much oral work as the staff would like to give.

Thirdly, limitation in the number of the staff has resulted in groups that are too large to insure success in oral work. This has affected pass more than honours courses.

The examinations in Romance languages have always been regularly three hour papers for full courses. Since the commencement of the credit system, at least an examination of one hour is given for each hour per week of instruction. In nearly all courses finals are held at the end of each term, *i.e.*, in January and in May. The original system comprised three terms. Supplementals are allowed in pass courses only for either term, and are written in September. There has been no final oral test in Romance languages, but the requirements in oral work are included in term marks which are furnished by the instructor in charge. During the last ten or twelve years dictation has been included in most of the final papers. This is now usually given before the regular period for examination by the instructor concerned, and the marks thus obtained are added to those made in the written paper, the latter counting for 90% of the total.

Ever since 1896 modern languages have been regarded relatively as important as Greek and Latin. This is indicated by the acceptance in the English and history departments of either classics or moderns options on a basis of equality. The prestige of classical studies did not disappear at once, however, especially in the case of Latin. In the general course Latin was a compulsory subject in

all four years down to 1908-09. Since that time it has remained obligatory in two years only of the general pass course, and in this one respect the classics still retain a slight advantage. On the other hand, German, French, Italian, and lately Spanish, are not required but optional subjects. During recent years the popularity of French has been very marked, a very large proportion of pass students electing it. German has fallen off, especially throughout and since the War. The next language in point of favour with undergraduates is Spanish, and this applies to both pass students and those in honours moderns. Science courses place more emphasis on French and German than on the ancient classics. Greek is rarely taken, except by classical and divinity students. With the student body in general the modern languages are much more popular than the classics. It might be added, however, that an increased interest in the classics has been noted during the last few years. During 1925-26, out of a total registration of 720, there were 325 students enrolled in French, 49 in Spanish, 12 in Italian and 128 in German. In the case of German, however, it should be noted that the number taking this language is due largely to the creation of an elementary course and the sequent courses in scientific German prescribed by scientific departments.

The teaching staff in University College of the University of Western Ontario consists of seven persons—five in the department of Romance languages and two in the department of German. In addition there are six instructors in French and one in German for students in the affiliated colleges.

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THE HISTORY OF THE TRAINING OF MODERN LANGUAGE
TEACHERS IN ONTARIO

Before treating specifically of the training of teachers of modern languages in the province of Ontario it is necessary to sketch briefly the history of the training of teachers in the secondary schools.

The necessity for the training of teachers for the public (elementary or common) schools of the province was recognized by the educational authorities in 1847, when the Toronto Normal School was established for the training of second and first class teachers.¹ In 1875 the Ottawa Normal School was opened, and these two institutions, combined with the county model schools established in 1877, were considered ample to meet the growing demands for teachers until 1900, when the London Normal School was established. In 1907 four additional normal schools were provided and the county model schools were abolished.

But up to the year 1885, except for the short-lived Model Grammar School, 1858-1863, no provision had been made for the training of teachers for the high schools and collegiate institutes, which had been organized to supersede the old grammar schools. The collegiate institute is a high school with superior equipment and a specialist at the head of the departments of classics, English and history, modern languages, mathematics and natural science. With the growth of towns and cities these secondary schools were fast increasing in numbers and importance. However, it is not to be concluded that all the teachers of the high schools were lacking in professional training. Many assistants, having received their training at the normal schools, had begun to teach in the

¹Hodgins, *Schools and Colleges of Ontario*, pp. 212-213.

public (elementary or common) schools and were later transferred to the secondary schools. These were in most cases holders of first class certificates. After the year 1865 all principals were required to be graduates. But the majority of university graduates, whose academic standing gave them requisite authority to teach, were wholly untrained. In view of this the high school inspectors in their annual reports, from as early as 1872, were continually urging on the minister of education the advisability of providing such professional training.¹

In 1885 the Hon. Geo. W. Ross, then minister of education, made the first step in advance. Four of the leading collegiate institutes were chosen in which candidates for high school assistants' certificates were obliged to take a four months' course in the autumn. During these four months the student received general instruction from the headmaster in regard to his duties, and observed and taught lessons in the various subjects. Advice and criticism were tendered by the teachers in charge of the subjects of the high school courses. At the end of December, the candidate whose teaching had been approved and who had passed a written examination, received his certificate.

It was soon felt, however, that, while these training institutes, increased later to six in number, were doing very effective work,² the theory of teaching, the study of educational psychology, the history of education, the science of education and school organization and management were being neglected.³ The result of this impression was the establishment in 1890 of the Provincial School of

¹Report of the Minister of Education, 1880, pp. 22-23; 1885, pp. 138-139.

²John Seath, H.S. Inspector, in Report of the Minister of Education, 1889, p. 195.

³Dr. J. A. McLellan, Report of the Minister of Education, 1901, p. 187.

Pedagogy, which was located in the departmental buildings in Toronto and placed under the principalship of Dr. J. A. McLellan, who was aided by a vice-principal. No provision was made, however, for observation or practice teaching, the four months' course consisting of lectures on the subjects already mentioned. At the end of the session in December the candidate received an interim certificate good until the following June, when he submitted to a practical examination.

The four months' session was later extended to cover the academic year from October to May. Lectures on methods in classics, mathematics, and science, delivered by professors on the staff of the University of Toronto, were added to the course. A plan to secure practice teaching in the high schools of Toronto having failed, an effort was made to provide this opportunity by assigning to a student-teacher a lesson to be taught to his fellow-students, who became his class for the time being.¹ Thus while the new institution was well equipped on the side of theory, it lacked the real practical training of the training institutes which it had replaced.

To provide the necessary observation and practice the school was removed in 1897 to Hamilton and became known as the Ontario Normal College. The new institution was still under the charge of Dr. McLellan, who was assisted by the headmaster and staff of the Hamilton collegiate institute. The new arrangement combined the advantages of a theoretical and a practical training. The course, lasting from October 1st to May 31st, included lectures on psychology, science of education and methods of teaching the various subjects of the high school course. As the lecturers had already a full programme of lessons in

¹S. Karr, *The Training of Teachers in Ontario*, 1916.

the classes of the collegiate institute, their energies were put to very severe and ill-requited strain.¹

In May, 1907, the Normal College was discontinued, the provincial department of education having decided to entrust to the universities the duty of training holders of first class non-professional certificates (about the equivalent of one year of university work) and university graduates in arts to become teachers in the elementary public schools in the newly-created continuation schools (small rural high schools instituted in 1896), or in high schools and collegiate institutes.² The universities were also to give instruction looking toward graduate degrees in arts and in pedagogy.

Accordingly faculties of education were established in 1907 in the University of Toronto, and at Queen's University, Kingston. The curriculum of these universities, approved by the department of education, provided for four courses in 1907:

(a) The general course and first advanced course for an interim first class public school and an interim high school assistant's certificate.

(b) The second advanced course for an interim high school assistant's certificate.

(c) Special courses for candidates for specialist certificates, to be combined with the first or second advanced course.

(d) The special course for public school inspectors.

To these were added, later, courses for degrees in pedagogy and for teachers of household science.

The courses under (a), (b) and (c) provided for special instruction in methods of teaching modern languages which will be discussed later.

¹Report of the Minister of Education, 1901, p. 188.

²Hodgins, *Schools and Universities of Ontario*, p. 272.

In 1920 the minister of education decided to make further changes in the arrangements for training first-class public school teachers and high school teachers. With this end in view the faculties of education in the two universities were merged into the Ontario College of Education, under the joint administration of the department of education and the University of Toronto. The holders of non-professional first class certificates, who were no longer eligible to become high school assistants, were assigned for their professional training to the normal schools.¹ To the college of education are now admitted, with the consent of the minister of education, graduates in arts, science, commerce, agriculture or applied science, of a British university.

As already indicated in the foregoing general sketch of the training of teachers in the secondary schools of Ontario, no specific training for teaching modern languages was provided up to the year 1885. In most cases the method employed in the schools was similar to that of the instruction in Latin and Greek. The grammars of the day, e.g., De Fivas' *Grammaire des Grammaires* and Aue's *German Grammar*, followed the system known as the grammar method. The teaching was characterized by little regard to the fact that the language was a living one. There was slight heed given to the pronunciation of the language, and practically no study of French or German models, but a thorough drill was given in grammatical forms and rules, followed by a course in translation of such works as Lamartine's *Christophe Colomb* and Scribe's *Bertrand et Raton*; or Schillers' *Wilhelm Tell* and *Die Belagerung von Antwerpen*. The standard of academic requirements of the teacher was either a professional first class certificate (equal to

¹See page 575 of this report.

two years of a university course) or a bachelor of arts degree.

During the second period, 1885-1890, when students were sent to the training institutes, no lectures on the teaching of modern languages were delivered, but the student observed the lessons taught by the teacher of French and German and took part in the discussion which followed. The student was afterwards called upon to teach a few lessons in French or German, but necessarily very, very few, as the number of subjects was many and the course lasted a scant four months. In the meantime Fasquelle's *Lessons in French* and Fraser and Van der Smissen's *German Grammar* (1888), which both stressed composition and translation based upon model sentences, had replaced the grammars formerly in use. The teaching also took a new trend, for while formal grammar was still intensively studied, the knowledge of the pupil was now tested by his ability to translate accurately from and into the foreign language. Greater attention was also paid to the securing of a good pronunciation, and oral work was encouraged and stressed. Specialists' certificates in modern languages (with English) were granted on completion of the four months' course to those who had successfully pursued the honour course in the university. Toward the close of this period (1890), the high school inspectors in their annual reports made, among others, the following remarks and suggestions:

(a) "The work done in the training schools becomes more satisfactory from year to year."¹

"Generally speaking, also, very marked progress has been made in the character of the work done in all the departments—more especially in English, French and German, and science. The successful establishment of

¹John Seath, from the Report of the Minister of Education, 1889, p. 195.

two societies consisting largely of high school masters, the Modern Languages and the Science Teachers' Societies of Ontario, shows unmistakably that science and moderns have earnest supporters, and are taking their rightful place as important elements of modern culture."¹

(b) "In French and German, as in Latin and Greek, more time is devoted to the study of the texts than to that of grammar and of composition. Some improvement has been made, I think, in the matter of using dictation and conversation as a means of familiarizing pupils with the pronunciation of the languages and with their colloquial idioms; but, on the whole, the teaching is considerably below the standard set by Mr. Fitch, who tells us that 'no lesson in French' (and I presume the remark refers with equal force to German) 'which is confined to translation and reading is worth much if it is not followed up by actual conversation'."²

During the period in which the School of Pedagogy was conducted in Toronto (1890-1897) the teacher-in-training was obliged to take the following subjects: psychology, science of education, history of education, school organization and management, methods in mathematics and methods in English.³ In addition, the candidate holding university qualifications was obliged to take methods in Latin, and Greek or French and German; and other candidates, methods in science or classics or modern languages. The lecturer in each subject was to develop systematically the best method of dealing with each branch of his department in the various stages of a pupil's progress, and as far as possible to explain and

¹John Seath, from the Report of the Minister of Education, 1889, p. 191.

²J. E. Hodgson, Report of the Minister of Education, 1889, p. 181.

³Report of the Minister of Education, 1892, p. 69.

justify his method on scientific principles, giving model lessons for classes in different stages of advancement. His duty was also to criticize the practice-teaching of teachers-in-training and by suitable records to provide a means of forming a just estimate of the standing of each. As already stated, such lessons were usually taught to groups of fellow-students. The only book of reference for special method in moderns was Fitch's *Lectures on Teaching*. In addition to requirements as to teaching and term-examinations, the candidate had to submit to a final examination in each subject. For specialists' certificates, in addition to the honour standing granted by the university, the standard required was two-thirds of the marks in the candidate's special department.

When the Normal College was established in 1897 at Hamilton the same regulations in regard to courses and duties of lecturers were continued as in the School of Pedagogy.¹ In addition to oral examinations teachers-in-training were obliged to take two written examinations (one in December, and the other in March) on the various subjects of the course conducted by the staff of the college, and also a written examination conducted by the education department. The holder of a specialist non-professional certificate who passed the final examination was entitled to an interim specialist's certificate, which became permanent after two years' successful teaching, approved by the high school inspectors.

In regard to the special instruction in methods of teaching modern languages, the master at the head of the department delivered a series of lectures throughout the academic year, one lecture a week to the whole group of students on the topics outlined as follows:

¹Report of the Minister of Education, 1896, p. 89.

MODERN LANGUAGES¹

1. *Introductory*—What should be expected of the teacher of modern languages? What constitutes a knowledge of French and German? Aim of linguistic study, with special reference to the study of French and German. The utilitarian side, the disciplinary side, the literary side.

2. *Method*—An examination of historical methods: the traditional method; modern methods. Inductive teaching—the test of a true method—general principles of method. Speaking and conversation—a means to an end; abuse of methods. Pronunciation and oral reading—indispensable—their value as an aid in memorizing forms, acquiring vocabulary, and appreciating literature. Methods at various stages.

3. *Composition*—Underlying principles—applications of principles in different stages of instruction—the sentence—the paragraph—re-translation; condensation, expansion, or reproduction of stories; original letters, themes, etc.—correction should not discourage—mischief of the dictionary.

4. *Grammar*—How best taught. Use to be made of the text book. Excessive details. Dictation and audition. Their utility—methods of correction. Translation—importance of—necessity for great care with this work—translation vs. transliteration—thought, idiom, spirit, style in translation.

5. *Sight-Reading*—Value of—methods of treating. Supplementary reading—methods of dealing with. Observation and practice of teaching. Criticism—discussion of topics suggested by teaching.

6. *Special Course*—Lectures will also be given to those preparing for the specialists' examinations, dealing with

¹Calendar of the Ontario Normal College, 1903.

the methods of teaching the more advanced work of the course, giving special attention to the literary and aesthetic side of the work.

During this period the first of the Fraser and Squair French grammars was published (1891) and at once authorized and introduced into the schools. A second grammar, still one of the best of reference books, appeared in 1900, and was adopted. The third of the series, still in use in the schools, was issued and authorized in 1913. The effect of this series of text-books on the methods of Ontario teachers cannot be over-estimated.

When the faculties of education were established in the universities in 1907 three courses were offered which involved a training in the teaching of modern languages. (1) The general course to which were admitted all students who had passed the non-professional examination known as the faculty entrance (equal to honour matriculation in English, Latin, mathematics, history with French and German or the sciences) and such graduates as desired to take the course. The certificate awarded to the successful candidate entitled the holder to teach in the public schools, continuation schools, and in the lower forms of the high schools. (2) The first advanced course, for university graduates only, prepared for a certificate giving authority to teach in any grade of high schools, continuation schools and public schools. (3) The second advanced course, for university graduates only, (which, like course (2), also provided for special training for specialists who must be honour graduates in the special courses) led to a certificate giving authority to teach in high schools only. These courses all consisted of three parts as follows:

Part I.—The history of education and educational systems, the principles of education, psychology and

general method, school management and school law, and special methods (adapted to the course) in English, history and geography, mathematics, Latin, and one of the following:

- (a) Biology, physics, chemistry and mineralogy,
- (b) French and German,
- (c) Greek and French,
- (d) Greek and German,

with a review, from the academic standpoint of the subjects of the public and high schools, according to the course chosen.

Part II.—A course of instruction, both academic and professional, in nature-study, music, manual training or household science, reading, art, commercial work, elementary science, physical training and hygiene for the general and for the first advanced courses. Students of the second advanced course took the art, reading, commercial work, elementary science, and physical training of the high school course together with two seminar courses chosen from those given on history of education, principles of education, classics, mathematics, English and history, science and modern languages.

Part III consisted of observation and practice teaching. At least forty lessons were to be observed and twenty lessons in all taught before critic-teachers.

With such an extensive programme of studies, with lecture periods provided for each, the apportionment of time to instruction in methods in French and German was necessarily very small. Lectures were few in number and, in the case of the University of Toronto, were delivered at first by instructors appointed from year to year. In September, 1910, when the building for the faculty of education was completed, a permanent lecturer was appointed whose duties also included those of chief

instructor of French and German in the University of Toronto Schools, the practice schools founded for use of the new faculty. The teachers-in-training were divided at first into two large groups, and as lectures were few and the work heavy in the schools, little opportunity was given to provide the very necessary academic review or to do individual work with the student. The work at Queen's University was similarly conducted.

As the change occurring in 1920, by which the faculties of education of the two universities were merged into the Ontario College of Education, affected the administration rather than the curriculum of the training institution, it has not been considered necessary to trace out the changes in detail, but to indicate in a general way the progress and improvement effected in the special field of modern languages. Furthermore, as the information regarding the present conditions of teacher training in Ontario are given on pages 574 to 580 of this report, there is no necessity to reprint it in this historical summary.

In 1917 the regulation was issued by the department of education that from that time forward only graduates in arts or in the sciences from a British university (approved by the minister of education) would be granted certificates to teach in a collegiate institute, high school, or a grade A continuation school. This raising of the standard of academic knowledge has been very beneficial as far as the modern languages are concerned, implying as it did an additional training of from one to four years in French, the option usually chosen by the Ontario scholar.

By the same regulation, the holder of an upper school, non-professional certificate (the equivalent of the former faculty entrance examination) was now restricted to a course which, on successful completion, would authorize

him or her to teach in the public schools or in a grade B or C continuation school. In 1920, these students were transferred to the normal schools, in which they receive the course of instruction outlined on page 578 of this report. It is similar in character to that of the Ontario College of Education, but restricted to about 20 lecture periods. The instructor is either a member of the staff of the normal school, specially qualified, or the specialist in charge of the work in a neighbouring collegiate institute. The arrangement of students in groups of about forty enables the lecturer to have closer surveillance of the student's work. The practice lessons observed and taught are necessarily few in number. As this course in the normal schools has now been extended to two years the training in the teaching of modern languages will, it is understood, be amplified and improved with respect to both academic knowledge and professional skill.

In the Ontario College of Education, since the year 1920, the number of school subjects which the candidate for a high school assistant's certificate is required to take has been very much reduced, and the work in each subject chosen accordingly intensified in degree. It is no longer necessary for all students to take elementary science, mathematics, Latin, together with either two other languages or biology, physics, chemistry and mineralogy. All students must take English, including history and geography and (a) Latin and French *or* German *or* Spanish *or* Greek *or* (b) mathematics and science. Instead of scattering his energies over the wide range of subjects outlined in the courses of 1907-1920, the teacher-in-training now receives a better academic review of his subjects, more extensive instruction in methods and more practical work in observation and teaching.

In 1918, owing to increased duties in the teacher-

training, the lecturer in methods in modern languages was relieved of practically all classes in the University of Toronto Schools and promoted to the rank of assistant professor, and in 1922 to that of an associate professor in the University of Toronto.

The students of the college who take the language option are now divided into four groups with from 25 to 45 students in each. Each group receives approximately 50 lectures of forty minutes each during the academic year, as compared with 20-30 in the years 1915-1920 and 40 in the years 1921-1925.

This increase in allotment of time has made possible a much fuller course in French phonetics and more thorough review of academic work in French grammar and composition. The system of smaller groups has enabled the professor in charge of the work to obtain more definite information regarding the attainments and needs of the students under his charge. Two beginners' classes in the University of Toronto Schools which are under his instruction are used to provide demonstration-lessons taught before the different groups of teachers-in-training. Students whose fundamental work in French has been defective are given every opportunity for help leading to self-improvement.

During the present year (1927-28) a survey made of the teachers-in-training indicates a great variance in the number of years of French in the courses of fourteen different colleges of Canadian universities represented, with a consequently wide divergence in their academic standing. Of 125 students choosing the language option with French, 2 have had no college French, 11 have had one year, 19 two years, 33 three years, 54 four years, and 6 five years of college French. An examination into their ability to read French fluently and correctly resulted in

the following grading: excellent 14, very good 22, good 24, fair 36, poor 19, very poor 10. A test of their ability to use French correctly within distinctly narrow limits would also indicate that, in many colleges, the study of literature was being stressed to the neglect of phonetic and linguistic training. Eleven students are taking the German and five the Spanish option, these numbers including those in the course for the High School Assistant's or Specialist's certificate.

The observation work and practice teaching take place in the University of Toronto Schools and in two of the Toronto collegiate institutes. Students requiring aid in the preparation of their practice lessons are invited by the professor to submit their lesson plans for approval, on which occasion personal instruction is usually given the teacher both in academic work and in method. An average of at least thirty persons a week avail themselves of this privilege. Since the total number of practice lessons taught by each student is now from 40 to 50, as many as ten French lessons may be taught by the individual teacher-in-training. One of the duties of the professor is to observe the practice teaching every afternoon in one of the three practice schools. A conference is usually held with the critic-teacher or the teacher-in-training or with both at the conclusion of the lesson. Every encouragement and incentive is given to the student to improve his knowledge of the language studied by providing him with lists of books and of other *realia* for both learning and teaching. Information in regard to summer schools, songs, lantern slides, phonographic records is disseminated among the students.

Seminar classes are conducted for the students who have the standing necessary for specialists (at least second-class honours in an approved university) and who

are proceeding to a specialist's certificate. At present there are three classes of such students, specialists in (1) French and English, (2) French and German, (3) French and Spanish. A seminar is held once a week for students in French and once in two weeks for German and Spanish respectively. The course is outlined on page 575 of this report.

A summer school, lasting five weeks, for teachers of French, has been instituted since 1916 by the department of education. The teachers are divided into groups according to their ability and experience, and an intensive course is arranged for each group in phonetics, conversation, composition, literature and modern studies, all conducted in French. A series of ten lectures on methods also formed a part of this course, with a view to keeping teachers in touch with newer ideas in methods and textbooks. This last feature was dropped, however, on the transfer of the school to Quebec in the summer of 1927. Here on the bank of the St. Lawrence at Sillery, a most successful course was given, most of the instructors being teachers, professors, or writers of the province of Quebec. The beneficial effects of this annual school are being felt throughout Ontario in increased zeal, better methods and better scholarship.

It may be said, in conclusion, that a very considerable degree of progress in modern language teaching has been attained, especially in the last ten or twelve years, due to several causes. In the first place, the standard of academic requirements has been raised for high school assistants. Secondly, the teachers in continuation schools, high schools and collegiate institutes are endeavouring to use methods which will lead to better skill in pronunciation, to an earlier introduction of their pupils to reading French as such, to an endeavour to lay such a

foundation of useful phrases, idioms and vocabulary that the pupil may be encouraged to express his own thoughts in the foreign language. The idea seems to be gaining ground that there should be more extensive reading and less intensive translation into English. The minds of the teachers are open to new aims and values in language teaching and to new methods. An ever-increasing number of teachers are spending summer vacations and school years abroad—in France, in Germany and in the United States, for greater proficiency in linguistics and in teaching. This at their own expense. Thirdly, in colleges and universities, judging by the recent graduates who come for teacher-training, more attention is being paid in general to the training of the ear and to the production of a better pronunciation than in times past. Here also the foreign language is being used more and more as the medium of communication between professor and student.

MANITOBA

The earliest teaching of French to English speaking students was done in all probability by John Pritchard (grandfather of Archbishop Matheson of the diocese of Rupert's Land) in a boarding school established in the early forties and located near Old Kildonan church a few miles north of the present site of the city of Winnipeg. According to Archbishop Matheson, John Pritchard was well versed in French and taught the language in his school. A number of the future officers of the Hudson's Bay Company were educated there.

Some ten years after the opening of John Pritchard's boarding school the Red River Academy was established by a Mr. McCallum under the auspices of the Anglican church. About 1850 Bishop Anderson took charge of the

school and taught French, German and Italian, as his *Journal*, written in 1852, clearly indicates.

The work of the Red River Academy was continued in 1866 by St. John's College. Of the modern languages St. John's College taught French only, until after the founding of the university in 1877.

Manitoba College, founded in 1871, was the next among the Protestant colleges to take up the work of secondary and higher education in the province. As in the case of the early Anglican schools, there are practically no records of the teaching done during these early years. The teaching of French was apparently begun in Manitoba College in 1872 when Dr. Hart was called from the Perth, Ontario, grammar school to teach classics and French in the college. The school was divided into four forms, the highest doing the work of the first year of the University of Toronto. There were 15 students of a total enrolment of 24 studying French in 1872. The numbers in the two colleges increased slowly until the founding of the university, after which they did all the work covered in moderns in the university until Wesley College joined them in 1888.

The organization of the first complete high school in Manitoba followed just ten years after the founding of Manitoba College. The report of the minister of education for the year 1881-2 indicates that standards eight, nine and ten had been taught that year in the Winnipeg Central Collegiate by one teacher. This course did apparently not include French. The following autumn, however, standards eleven and twelve were added to form the complete matriculation course. There was still only one teacher in charge. Forty-one students were studying Latin, fourteen Greek and twenty-five French. Collegiate departments were opened during the same year in Brandon and Portage la Prairie. The languages,

namely Latin, Greek and French, were considered for some years the corner-stone of the matriculation course. Standards ten, eleven and twelve constituted the matriculation course, or rather the collegiate department. French was begun in standard eleven, and the course outlined for matriculation was Fénelon's *Télémaque*, book one. The matriculation, or as it was then called, the preliminary, examination was for several years quite simple, consisting for the first two or three years of only from ten to fifteen lines of translation into English with four or five grammatical, and two or three simple literary questions. The examinations did not include any translation into French and never at any time an oral test. The paper was three hours in length, and the pass mark was 34%. The preliminary examination was taken only by students doing their work outside the colleges. The latter could promote their students into the university by any standard they pleased.

In Winnipeg and Brandon the high school work developed rapidly during the eighties, while the collegiate institute in Portage la Prairie was obliged to close its doors at the end of 1884 for lack of funds, not to open again until 1895.

The standard established at this time for collegiate institutes was, that the full course of three years' work be provided for, that the staff consist of no less than three teachers, that the principal be a graduate of a British university and that the assistants have a first class certificate, which was declared to be the equivalent of at least first year standing in a British university. From the beginning the students were divided into two groups, those intending to teach, for whom no language was prescribed, and those seeking matriculation, of whom Greek, Latin and French were required. In spite,

however, of this rigid language requirement, 49 students out of a total of 94 were taking the matriculation course in 1885-6 in the Winnipeg collegiate, while at Brandon only 2 out of 39 were preparing for university entrance.

The work of inspection of the collegiates was placed from the beginning in the hands of a committee of two chosen from the college staffs. The rapid improvement which the collegiates made during the first ten years must be ascribed in large measure to the high educational ideals of these men. It was their repeated insistence that induced the department of education to institute a system of high school entrance examinations. They called attention frequently to the inadequate staffs and equipment of the high schools, to the poor teaching, the bad pronunciation of French, and to the unsatisfactory textbooks. In 1890 the Advisory Board was created and the whole direction of the public school curriculum placed in their hands.

In the early 90's the teaching of moderns made a definite advance. In 1891 German was added and placed on an equality with French in the curriculum. In that year also the first modern language specialist, devoting his whole time to the teaching of French and German, was appointed to the Winnipeg collegiate. In the same year Greek was dropped from the requirements for matriculation and moderns and science substituted for it. Furthermore, a second class certificate was offered to those passing the matriculation examination, which greatly encouraged the study of modern languages. From 1888 to 1892 the average number of students taking the matriculation course was 30%. In 1895, after the new course had been in operation for four years, the percentage of students taking the course had risen to slightly over

50 and in 1904 to 61 in the three collegiates then operating in the province.

In 1892 a very marked improvement is noticeable in the material prescribed for matriculation French, as well as in the examination. Fénelon, who had reigned supreme for ten long and no doubt weary years over the French matriculation course, was finally deposed and a more interesting and varied programme substituted. For the examination two papers were now set, both three hours in length, one for authors and the other for grammar and composition. Three years later the pass mark was raised from 34%, which had been the standard from the beginning, to 40% and remained that until 1922 when it was raised to 50%, the pass mark at present.

The year 1905 is notable in that it marks the beginning of a very rapid extension of high school teaching in the province. In 1904 the work was still confined to the collegiates at Winnipeg, Brandon and Portage la Prairie; in 1907 nine additional high schools were in operation. This at once reduced greatly the percentage of students taking the modern languages, because most of these newly formed high schools were not equipped to offer the full matriculation course. While in 1904, 61% of the high school students in the province were looking forward to matriculation, four years later only 25% were preparing to enter the university. This rapid increase in the number of high schools continued during the next few years, necessitating the appointment of a full time inspector for secondary schools, who had general supervision over all the work of the high schools. Neither the province as a whole nor the city of Winnipeg has ever had a supervisor of modern languages.

In 1904 Icelandic was made a language option for matriculation and in 1909 this privilege was extended to

Swedish also. These languages were never a part of the general high school curriculum but were studied for the most part in private schools of these nationalities or in one of the affiliated colleges. The number offering these subjects has always been very limited.

The next important change made in the high school curriculum came in 1913 when the combined teacher's and matriculation course was established, one language only being required in this course. This induced many who would otherwise have elected the teacher's course with no foreign language requirement to enter the combined course with the one language requirement. In 1914 there were 4385 students in the high schools of Manitoba. Of these 25% were taking the regular matriculation course, 30% the combined course and the remaining 45% the teacher's and commercial courses.

The adoption of the combined course no doubt helped to precipitate the almost universal demand from the high schools of the province, strongly supported by those in charge of public school education, for a one language matriculation course. A heated discussion of the subject was begun as early as 1914. The proposal as originally made was that Latin only should be required for university entrance. The plea was that the provincial high schools found it difficult to meet the demands which the university was making in languages. Others maintained that an excessive amount of time was spent on both languages and mathematics and that new conditions arising out of the war demanded greater emphasis upon science, history, and English. The university council finally, in 1918, adopted the one language matriculation requirement but decided that in the future any one of the four languages commonly studied in high schools, namely, Greek, Latin, French or German, should satisfy the

requirement for university entrance with respect to language. The adoption of the one language requirement has had no very marked effect upon language study in the high schools and university. While the smaller schools were relieved, and definitely limited themselves to one language, which was either Latin or French, depending often on what the teacher could teach best, in the larger high schools two languages have, as a rule, been chosen, these having almost invariably been Latin and French as before. According to the report of the minister of education, 58% of the high school students of the province were studying Latin in 1919-20, 83% were studying French, 52% both Latin and French, and 4½% Latin only.

The teaching of German was affected only slightly by the one language matriculation requirement since it had never been taught to any extent in the high schools outside of Winnipeg. Very serious, however, has been the effect of the war. Since 1916 the teaching of German in Manitoba, outside of the Mennonite districts in the southern part of the province, has been practically limited to two high schools in the city of Winnipeg, and this condition has prevailed down to the present. This is due by no means entirely to the feelings engendered against German by the war, at any rate so far as the public is concerned. In the rural sections of the province the reason appears to be largely an economic one. The high schools have been finding it very difficult to carry on at all because of limited funds, and have therefore reduced the course to the very minimum. In the city of Winnipeg the small number studying German appears to be due more to a general indifference on the part of those in charge of the high schools. One of the principals frankly stated a year ago that, while there was a certain demand for German in his school, he could find no room for it in his

time-table. There seems to be no doubt that, with slight encouragement and with the demands the medical and science faculties of the university are making with respect to German, every high school in Winnipeg could organize each year a class in German of thirty or forty students.

There are but two further points to be mentioned in the evolution of language instruction in this province, so far as the high schools are concerned. The first of these is the change in the method of teaching French which the department of education has during the last ten years been trying to bring about. For several years prior to 1918 there had been a growing dissatisfaction with the results obtained in the teaching of French. It was claimed that, after spending three years upon the language, the student could not use it, could not even pronounce a few ordinary words in French so that he could be understood. During the year 1917-18 a committee was set to work on a re-organization of the method of French teaching with the definite object of improving oral instruction. They mapped out a course for the following year for grade IX, which put the whole emphasis upon oral work, the idea being that a student should first acquire some skill in oral expression before proceeding to the study of formal grammar and reading. The teachers were urged to adopt the new method, and an opportunity was offered them in the summer school to get some idea of the method and some facility in the use of the language. Looking back at the results of that attempt from the standpoint of the present, one is obliged to conclude that the great hopes of the committee have not been realized, or at best only in a slight degree. They began at the wrong end. They tried to impose a method upon teachers with which many were not in sympathy and could not use, so that the result was in some cases even worse than before.

They did not realize that a radical change in teaching a foreign language cannot be brought about by any such quick and easy process. Time and money are required. Educational authorities must realize that the qualifications of foreign language teachers are peculiar and more difficult to acquire than those of most other types of teachers; therefore more money must be spent, either in the form of larger salaries to attract properly qualified teachers, or by inducing those already in the service to study abroad by giving them extended leave of absence on part pay.

The other important change made in the high school curriculum of Manitoba in recent years, affecting particularly the teaching of languages, is the establishment of the junior high school. This movement began likewise in 1917-18 simultaneously with the adoption of the oral method. Its main object was to obviate the sharp break which existed between the eighth and ninth grades and incidentally to provide opportunity to begin foreign languages at an earlier stage. The first junior high school was established at Stonewall, in 1917. The following year the first junior high school in Winnipeg was established and the idea spread rather rapidly, so that now we have something like a dozen in the province. The effect of the junior high school upon the study of French in this province has likewise been very disappointing. French is begun in grade VII. When the student enters grade nine and ten he is generally placed in a class with those who began the language in grade IX, so that he is compelled to mark time until the rest of the class have caught up with him, losing in the meantime all interest in the subject. At the end of grade XI he takes the same examination as students who have begun French in grade IX. The work in French of the freshmen classes

in the university indicates that the five year study of French instead of three has had no perceptible effect.

MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE UNIVERSITY

The University of Manitoba was established by act of the Manitoba legislature in 1877. So far as modern languages are concerned, the university teaching was done, until 1913, exclusively by the colleges. These consisted from the beginning of St. John's College and Manitoba College, Wesley College joining them after its establishment in 1888. The university course was, until 1900, only three years in length. Except for matriculation, a modern language was never at any time prescribed for the B.A. degree, and for several years French was the only modern language taught. As was the case with matriculation, the reading matter for the first year was rather difficult though very slight in amount, and the examination very elementary. In 1882, for example, the only examination written on in French was that for the first year. It consisted of 12 lines of translation from Bossuet and some quite elementary grammatical and one or two simple literary questions. For a number of years the lectures in moderns were given without exception by men whose chief interests lay in other subjects.

In the calendar for 1883-4 appeared for the first time the announcement of the establishment of the honour course in mathematics, classics, natural science, mental and moral philosophy and modern languages. The course in moderns was not offered, however, until 1886 and consisted of English, French, German and Italian, the first three of these languages being studied during the entire three years of the three year course and Italian during the last year only. In the foreign languages, the literature studied was restricted exclusively to the older classical

authors and the material was quite limited in scope. In French the authors treated were Corneille, Racine, Buffon, Montesquieu, Descartes and Boileau, with a paper consisting of the history of the French language and some prose composition. The German course was very meagre indeed, consisting of "Der Neffe als Onkel" and "Egmonts Leben und Tod" by Schiller, Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm", Chamisso's "Peter Schlemihl", Goethe's "Hermann und Dorothea", Schmid's "Henri d'Eichenfels", Goethe's "Faust" and a short extract from the "Nibelungenlied", with a paper on the history of the German language and some prose composition. The Italian course included Italian grammar, Dante's "Divina Commedia", and Goldoni's "La Villegiatura". The entire two year course was covered by 20 three hour papers, 7 each for English and French, 5 for German and 1 for Italian. The course in Italian was discontinued after one year and German was placed on an equality with the other two languages.

A definite advance was made in modern language instruction in 1895. An oral examination was now required in French and German, 20% of the paper on composition being given to it, and the material of the courses was increased in amount and interest. The courses for first year honour students and for second and third year pass students was now divided into authors and grammar with composition, two three hour examinations being now given instead of one. This change was probably due to the fact that in all the colleges the work of moderns was now placed into the hands of special instructors.

An important change came again in 1900 when the university itself, which had been up to this time merely an examining body, entered upon the teaching of the natural sciences. Another year was now added to the

university course. Latin continued to be the fixed language in the new course and was compulsory for three years in the general, or pass, course with an option of either (*a*) Greek or (*b*) French and German.—It may be stated here that a modern language was never at any time compulsory, Greek or science could always be substituted for it, but as the tables of registration in various subjects show, French has, with the exception of the first 12 or 15 years, always been elected by a large majority of first and second year students.

In 1904 Icelandic was added to the language options of the first and second years, and Swedish followed in 1909. The number taking these options has always been small and at no time have they formed a part of the honour course.

Until 1910 honour French and German had always been rigidly linked with English. In that year greater freedom was allowed in the selection of subjects, permitting the student to elect history or political economy with moderns as well as English. This freedom was greatly extended two years later when a student was allowed to choose for his work in the third and fourth years either two subjects (majors), or four subjects (minors), or one major and two minors from the whole field of arts courses, the major being considered the equivalent of seven lecture hours per week and the minor the equivalent of half a major. This system prevailed until last year when the new honour and pass courses went into operation.

Until the university began to enter the field of teaching there was no prescription in regard to the number of hours of class instruction to be devoted to the various courses. This was a matter settled entirely by the institution that was doing the teaching, or even by the individual instructors. The examination was the sole factor

that determined the proficiency of the student in the subject. Now the feeling was becoming more and more insistent that the weight of each course should be definitely measured by the amount of time devoted to it in the class-room. First and second year French and German were given, with most other subjects, the value of three hours, a pass subject in the third and fourth years was given two hours.

In 1913 the university, which was already teaching a considerable number of arts subjects, established chairs in German and French, and during the next few years, partly through the stress of the war, the colleges dropped the teaching of moderns of the third and fourth years along with some other subjects, while Manitoba College discontinued its arts work entirely. Even in the first and second years their enrolments, particularly those of St. John's College, have ever since been comparatively small.

Since the organization of the university in 1877 the pass mark in arts subjects had been 34%. In 1914 the mark was raised to 40% and in 1922 to 50%.

A further attempt to improve the work in the various subjects was made in 1918 when, as a result of the re-organization of the work of the first and second years, four hours per week were given to French and German in these years.

In 1923 the university completely re-organized the work of the upper years by establishing a four year pass course and a five year honour course. In the pass course the student elects four subjects of four hours each for his third and fourth years. In the honour course he elects four subjects of four hours each for his third year and concentrates in his fourth and fifth years upon two of these subjects. The extremely small registration in honour courses thus far would indicate that the adoption

of the five year course is a step considerably in advance of the general condition of the province. Unless there is a considerable increase in registration in the new honour courses, there will no doubt be an unfavorable reaction upon the high school teaching of the province, since the new positions in the high schools will have to be filled largely by the inadequately prepared graduates from the pass courses.

As a final point might be mentioned the very large increase in the registration in German during the last two years. Four years ago about fifty students were studying German in the university, this year the number is close to 250. This increase is due largely to the change made two years ago in the medical matriculation course to the effect that every student entering Medicine must now have a reading knowledge of French and German. This means that practically every student must now in his pre-medical course study German for two years. Similarly every student in the honour science course is obliged to have at least the equivalent of one year of university German. Furthermore the abolition three years ago of the rigid year system now permits a student to take one course normally taken by students of some year lower than that in which his major work lies. As a result a number of arts students of the upper years are now taking German courses of the lower years. Besides a considerable number of arts freshmen, who have had no opportunity to take German in high school, are now entering the elementary classes, so that at the examination just past 138 students wrote in elementary German.

SASKATCHEWAN

In 1892 an ordinance establishing "Union Schools" (combined elementary and high) in the North West

Territories authorized the study of French and German as a part of the secondary school work.

In 1907, the Secondary Education Act of Saskatchewan authorized the study of French and German throughout the four years of the high school course. Following the regulations of the department of education these subjects are optional for teachers' diplomas, but either French or German is required for matriculation.

The Public School Act of 1920 authorizes the teaching of French for one hour a day in any public elementary school where such training is desired by the ratepayers. This Act provides also that French may be used as the language of instruction for French speaking children during their first year in school.

In 1926 a regulation of the department of education came into effect permitting the option of French as one of the subjects for the grade VIII diploma.

In all the high schools of the province great attention is given to the study of French. Usually a four year course is offered in the subject. Figures for 1926-27 show that approximately 90% of all the pupils in attendance were enrolled in French classes. German, on the other hand, is rarely studied. This is partly due to the fact that in most cases little or no provision is made for adequate teaching of the subject. The following figures showing the number of students who wrote the grade XI and grade XII examinations (matriculation) in French and German in 1926 will give an idea of the relative status of the two languages in the schools:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Grade XI</i>	<i>Grade XII</i>
French	2307	1074
German	134	91

The teaching of these subjects is directed mainly towards preparing students for the matriculation exam-

inations, junior matriculation being usually attained after three years of study, senior on the completion of the fourth year.

The department of education in its regulations recommends that teachers of French and of German, particularly the former, give special attention to pronunciation and conversation exercises. To what extent and with what efficiency this recommendation is observed it is difficult to determine, as there is no expert inspection of such work, and no test thereon in the departmental examinations. Doubtless teachers who have good command of their language give considerable attention to this phase of the work. It is true, however, that the necessity of preparing pupils for the matriculation tests tends to force teachers to place the main emphasis on translation and grammar.

The requirements for junior matriculation are: grammar, composition, (French: Fraser and Squair; German: Ontario High School), study of 100-125 pages of text, such as, *e.g.* Hugo's *Cosette* and Baumbach's *Waldnovellen*.

Senior matriculation requirements differ from those of junior only in demanding a more thorough knowledge of grammar (the text-books being the same as for junior) and more extensive reading (200-250 pages) of somewhat more difficult text, such as *e.g.* *L'Abbé Constantin*; *Der Schwiegersohn*.

An effort to secure for this report from official sources complete information as to the number and qualifications of teachers of French and German at present in the high schools of the province was unsuccessful. It seems safe to state, however, that the great majority of those engaged in teaching French have had special academic training for their work, and that a considerable number of them are able to speak the language sufficiently well for successful practice of the direct method of teaching. The Paris

scholarships—granted annually since 1921 by the provincial government to assist teachers desirous of prosecuting study in France—have doubtless contributed in a large measure towards bringing about this very desirable competency in the use of French. Few teachers of French or German in the high schools speak these languages as mother tongues.

Teaching of secondary grade is often carried on in public elementary schools—then called continuation schools. Here French and German are sometimes taught; to what extent it is impossible to say, as there is no available record of such work.

As far as can be ascertained there are at present in the province approximately 100 public schools (situated in French speaking districts) in which French is used as the language of instruction for French children in grade 1, as provided for by Sec. 178 (2) of the Public School Act. The teachers employed in these schools are of course bilingual. The French readers prescribed are the *Roch Magnon Cours de Lectures Graduées*.

In the schools referred to in the preceding paragraph, French is continued as a subject of study in the several grades, as permitted by Sec. 178 (3) of the Public School Act. The books prescribed for this study are the Roch Magnon series mentioned above, and *Leçons de langue française* (Les Frères des Ecoles Chrésiennes). A few schools (the number is very small other than those in French districts) have introduced French into the elementary grades. In these, text-books more suitable for non-French pupils are used, such as Longman's *French Course*.

In accordance with the provision of the Public School Act authorizing under certain conditions the study of French in the public elementary schools, there have been established in the provincial normal schools at Regina

and Saskatoon courses of instruction in methods of teaching this subject.

There are in the province a considerable number of private schools (chiefly convent schools) that provide courses of study similar to those of the public school, both elementary and high, and prepare pupils for the examinations of the department of education. In these schools great attention is usually given to the study of French, and special opportunities are offered for using the language as a medium of intercourse (*e.g.* at table, during recreations, etc.) Many of the pupils in these schools thus learn to speak French fairly well.

Regina College (Methodist), Campion College (Catholic), St. Peter's College (Catholic), Sacred Heart Academy, are affiliated with the University of Saskatchewan under the title of junior colleges. In this capacity they provide instruction in French and German up to the end of the sophomore year. Except at St. Peter's College, established in a German community, the modern language generally chosen is French.

Collège Mathieu at Gravelbourg (French) is affiliated with Ottawa University, and has a French course similar to that given at Ottawa.

Moose Jaw College (United Church) and two Lutheran colleges, Regina and Saskatoon, prepare students for matriculation in French and German. The Lutheran colleges also carry on more advanced work in German.

In the first year of operation of the university, 1909-10, elementary lessons in French were given by the professor of English. In 1910 an instructor was appointed for French and German. Only first and second year classes were given. In 1913, separate departments of French and German were created, and a permanent professor appointed for each. Since then these departments have

gradually extended their programmes of study, in pace with the growth of the university. At present they provide fairly complete undergraduate training in their respective subjects.

The foreign language requirements for the degrees of the different colleges and schools are as follows:

Colleges of Arts and Science: for B.A. two classes of French, German, Latin or Greek.

For B.Sc. two classes of French or German or one class of each.

College of Law: One class of Latin or Greek and one class of French or German.

College of Agriculture	} One class of French or German.
College of Engineering	
School of Medical Science	

Senior matriculation is equivalent to one class as above. The university makes provision for the teaching of French or German to students who enter without matriculation in these subjects. One year's successful study of these subjects at the university is considered equivalent to junior matriculation.

The great majority of the students comply with the modern language requirement by taking French. The work of the French department has accordingly assumed fairly large proportions. Three full time instructors are at present necessary to conduct all the classes. The Great War seriously affected the growth of the German department, and the number of students of German is still comparatively small, one professor being sufficient to carry the work.

The programme of study in French and German at the university includes elementary language work, special

phonetics, practice in speaking and writing, survey courses of modern literature. A considerable amount of lecturing is done in French and in German.

A fair proportion of the students in arts take French as a major or a minor in a special course during the third and fourth years. A beginning of post-graduate study (for M.A.) has also been made in this subject.

ALBERTA

Until the erection of Alberta into a province in 1905, the educational history of the area now included within the confines of Alberta, is a part of the record of the old North West Territories.

The pioneers in the work of education in the West were church missionaries, Catholic and Protestant, who began to enter the country in the fifth decade of the XIX century, and engaged in teaching work in connection with their mission stations.

The first school west of Manitoba organized to carry on what may be regarded as regular school work was established at Edmonton in 1842 by the celebrated Father Lacombe. Twenty-one years later in 1863 the well-known Methodist missionaries, the McDougalls, father and son, established a Protestant school at White Fish Lake.¹ As time passed other mission schools came into existence at various points. Here and there, also, schools supported by local public subscription and independent of the churches were founded, but it was not until 1884 that the government of the Territories itself assumed a partial responsibility for education. From that date forward, with the influx of settlers owing to the completion of the

¹J. M. MacEachran: *History of Education in Alberta, in Canada and its Provinces*, Vol. 20, *passim*, and Walter C. Murray: *History of Education in Saskatchewan, in Canada and Its Provinces*, Vol. 20, *passim*.

Canadian Pacific Railway and the consequent growth of population, progress became more rapid. It will be surmised, as the Catholic schools were almost entirely of French-Canadian origin and the Protestant schools due to British-Canadian initiative, that French would be the medium of instruction for the former and English for the latter. This fact was not perhaps without its significance for the future in connection with the position of French in the Alberta school system.

In 1888 in the Revised Ordinances of the North West Territories we find provision made for the organization of secondary education. The legislation reads as follows: "The board of education shall prescribe a course of studies for use in the high school branch of such schools¹ and it shall be obligatory on the part of the trustees of such schools to provide suitable accommodation and all necessary school apparatus for the use of the pupils."²

Evidence that public control was becoming secure over education becomes clear from a perusal of the report of the board of education for the North West Territories for 1890-91. A full curriculum of studies for the first class teachers' certificate is laid down, and it is interesting to find French included with Latin among the subjects authorized to be taught. The prescription of the course in French may be recalled: "French grammar (Fasquelle-Sykes), composition, translation into French of short English sentences; translation of easy passages from French into English, and translation of passages from easy French authors." Neither French or Latin were obligatory for the diploma but were grouped with agriculture as "bonus" subjects.

¹*i.e.* The Union Schools, which offered instruction in both primary and secondary grades of work.

²Revised Ordinances of the North-West Territories, 1888, Chap. 59, Sec. 178.

As already indicated, French was now being regularly taught in most of the Catholic primary schools—existing generally in French-Canadian communities—but the report above quoted also informs us that work in French was being given at both the union school and also in the high school department of the Lacombe separate school in Calgary.

In 1892 the whole educational system of the Territories was re-organized and the government became directly responsible for the administration of the schools. From this time forward development grew more unified and rapid.

The question of the establishment of a university for the Territories had been discussed for a number of years previously. This agitation came to a head in 1891 when a meeting of those interested was held in Regina. Apparently it was deemed premature to take definite steps to organize a university at the time, and instead it was decided to ask the universities of Eastern Canada to hold examinations at certain points in the West.

This matter is alluded to in the interesting and comprehensive review of the situation made by Dr. D. J. Goggin in 1896 shortly after his appointment as superintendent of education for the Territories. He states: "The work in Latin, Greek, French and German, done in the high school departments, is determined by the matriculation requirements of the universities of Manitoba and Toronto."

As no language examination papers or prescription of courses—classical or modern—appear in the available educational reports of the Territorial government between 1891 and 1902 it is to be inferred—and this inference would accord with Dr. Goggin's statement—that language teaching in the Territories simply pre-

pared for the Eastern university examinations. The fact, too, that there were no language requirements for teachers' certificates supports this view. On the other hand the practical control of standards in language courses by the Eastern universities guaranteed the standards for which the work was prepared.

In 1902 the languages received further recognition. While they never have been compulsory subjects for teachers' certificates in what is now the province of Alberta,—neither before nor since autonomy—French and German might now be substituted in the case of the second class certificate for English grammar and rhetoric and chemistry, and for the first class certificate might replace geometry and trigonometry. The education report for 1902 also prints the requirements in French and German for standards VII and VIII, apparently identical with the contemporary demands of the University of Toronto for junior and senior matriculation.

Considering the enormous territory to be supervised and the sparse population, the education department of the Territorial government would seem to have been wisely and progressively administered. When, therefore, the new province of Alberta was constituted in 1905 the existing system was continued under certain of the former officials who were transferred from Regina to Edmonton. A desirable continuity was thus secured.

Strictly speaking, as already intimated, there were no high schools; only a public school system divided into eight "standards". Standard VII represented the recognized contemporary level of junior matriculation and standard VIII that of senior matriculation.

Instruction in the modern languages, French and German, was offered in standards VI, VII and VIII. The

ground covered in both languages corresponded practically with that covered by the Ontario high school curriculum of the same period. In French the Fraser and Squair Grammar was prescribed for grammar and composition. In standard VII texts such as Erckmann-Chatrian's *Contes Fantastiques* and Meilhac and Halévy's *L'Eté de la Saint Martin* offered reading material; while in standard VIII two texts of the type of Labiche and Martin's *La Poudre aux Yeux* and About's *Le Roi des Montagnes* were prescribed. In German the Fraser and Van der Smitten grammar was used for the work in grammar and composition. Leander's *Träumereien* or a similar alternative was prescribed as reading for standard VII and authors of the difficulty and extent of Moser's *Der Bibliothekar* and Hillern's *Höher als die Kirche* were made the basis of study and annual examination for standard VIII.

While the modern languages—and also the classics for that matter—were optional, they might be offered for entrance to the normal school, in lieu, for instance, of English, algebra and chemistry.

The highest professional certificate recognized was the "first class", the academic qualification for which was only standard VIII or senior matriculation. This grade of training was obviously too low to provide properly equipped modern language teachers, and it was only by importation that the needs of the schools could be met. The Alberta department of education has never laid down as necessary any special qualifications for language teachers. The result was that individual schools were obliged to decide the matter for themselves: in general it may be said that language posts went to honours graduates of the universities and that the specialist certificates of the Ontario department of education were given due weight.

It will be observed further that since the granting of autonomy all languages in the provincial schools have been on an equality. Until 1916-17 the University of Alberta, which opened its doors in 1908, demanded Latin for matriculation into the course for the B.A., but since that date all matriculation languages, classical and modern, have been on a parity.

In 1911, as the result of an inquiry into the school system by a commission, of which President Tory of the University of Alberta was the chairman, and in the personnel of which both the department of education and the university were represented, a comprehensive re-organization of the course of studies was effected. The old eight standards were re-grouped into twelve grades, of which IX, X, XI, and XII represented the four high school years culminating in senior matriculation.

The modern language work previously allotted to standards VI, VII, and VIII was re-distributed over four years. Teachers were thus allowed more adequate time in which to cover the prescribed work with undoubtedly good results as to the soundness and permanence of the training given. In order also to correct the tendency to cram, which the purely written character of the final authors examination permitted, if it did not encourage, notification was given by the department of education that henceforth one-third of the value of the authors paper would be awarded to sight translation.

Texts of the same accepted type as before were continued; but, chiefly for the sake of giving the teacher variety from year to year, a number of new titles were introduced and the prescriptions changed on the basis of a triennial cycle.

The new arrangements were scarcely in good working order when the Great War broke out. During the period

of that struggle the minds and efforts of men were necessarily directed to matters other than educational curricula. All that could be expected was that the watchword of "Carry on" should be heeded, and meantime, improvements or developments had of necessity to be postponed till peace should return.

The war was not long in progress till the British people became aware that the lack of sound and wide training in the living languages involved for them a serious handicap both immediately in the conduct of the war itself, and, of ultimately greater importance, in the multifarious international activities of the modern world.

The realization of this fact led doubtless to the appointment in 1916 of a very distinguished commission by the British government "to inquire into the position occupied by the study of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain . . ."

The report of the commission, embodied in the volume *Modern Studies*, was published in 1918 and must be regarded as an epoch-making document. The report gave concrete form to the growing public conviction that the position of the modern languages had not been adequately recognized, and further, that the methods of imparting them should be related intelligently both to the purpose the student had in acquiring them and to the length of time available for their study.

Not unaffected by the ferment of ideas, the department of education for Alberta announced in 1918 the institution of oral tests in modern languages in connection with the annual departmental examinations. In order to prepare the language teachers of the province for the new requirements—for these affected teacher as well as taught—instruction in oral methods was offered at the summer school for teachers held at the University of Alberta in

1918. The amount of authors work to be covered for junior matriculation was cut down about fifty per cent., the intention being that the text prescribed for study should be used primarily as a basis for drill in oral work and conversation. The oral examination was given a value equal to that of the authors paper. In the first year the cities of Calgary and Edmonton only were to be called upon to meet the new requirement. It was understood, however, that the operation of the scheme was to be gradually extended and oral examiners were to be sent finally to all main examination centres.

It cannot be said that the plan was unanimously welcomed by the teaching profession. In many schools there were teachers who, while they possessed a well-grounded grammatical knowledge of the language, had not had opportunities for colloquial practice. These could not be expected to be enthusiastic. Pupils, too, were nervous at the prospect of an oral examination. The examiners believed, owing to the shifting of emphasis, that on the whole good results were being attained, but, as developments proceeded, the physical difficulties of conducting the oral examinations appeared to increase out of proportion. At first one examiner was able to cover the few examination centres. When more were employed differences of personal judgment supervened and inequality in the evaluation of candidates became a potentially serious problem. After the war, financial retrenchment was demanded by the public and criticism was soon offered regarding the expense involved in the employment of the special oral examiners required. The oral tests, to the regret of some and the relief of others, were discontinued in 1922.

It may be noted that a similar movement at the same period took place in Manitoba. As in Alberta the results seem, and for like reasons, to have been disappointing.

Meantime, a second and comprehensive revision of the high school curriculum of the province was under way. The new scheme of studies began to come into operation in 1923. The committee in charge published an interesting rationale for their findings and recommendations. The so-called "unit" system was instituted under the terms of which the number of subjects was reduced and the time given to each increased. Two year-courses or "units" in French and German are now offered as preparation for the junior matriculation standard and three for that of senior matriculation. In place, however, of the former three short weekly periods devoted to the language, pupils now receive a daily lesson of forty minutes, and it is probable that the actual time in the class-room devoted to language study in the high schools of Alberta—though more condensed—is longer now than it used to be. It is too early yet to pass a well-founded judgment on the general results of the present scheme.

The present school curriculum of the province of Alberta provides for the possible segregation of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades to form "junior high schools". In accordance with this plan provision is made for the introduction of modern language instruction in grade VIII and its continuance thereafter. Edmonton has been the only community in Alberta to attempt to establish the junior high school. Even here, interest in this type of organization seems to be waning rather than growing and few or no positive results in language work are observable as a result of the rather half-hearted trial of the junior high school.

As a result of the war the position of German in the high schools for a number of years has been difficult. At first the study of German declined naturally through the war-time prejudice against everything Teutonic. French

and Latin were established as the favourites. Latterly, as the prejudice has worn off, the desire for German has reappeared in the schools, but for various reasons—financial and administrative chiefly—teaching power and teaching periods are not available and pupils are too often forced to confine themselves to French and Latin. The outlook for the early restoration of German to its former place in the schools is not too hopeful.

The following table shows the comparative numbers of pupils writing the three provincial examinations¹ in the various language subjects in 1926-27:

	I	II	III
FRENCH.....	3312	1419	406
GERMAN.....	68	19	15
GREEK.....	0	0	0
LATIN.....	1637	563	192 ¹

There exist in Alberta a considerable number of communities in which French is the native tongue and in which, owing to the special status of the French language in Canada, it would be unfair to compel pupils in the elementary grades who know no English to learn their first lessons through the medium of what to them is an unknown tongue.

To meet this problem, therefore, the Alberta department of education has authorized French in such communities to be the medium of instruction in the first school year, and to be a subject of study throughout the remaining primary grades.

The textual citation of the preface to the "Instructions concerning The Teaching of French in the Elementary

¹Of these three examinations I represents one year's study; II represents the level of junior matriculation and III that of senior matriculation. Greek is not at present being taught in the Alberta high schools.

Schools of the Province of Alberta" will explain the intent and scope of these special provisions:

"In all schools in which the Board by resolution decides to offer a primary course in French, in accordance with Sec. 184 of the School Ordinance, French shall be for the French-speaking children one of the authorized subjects of study and may be used as a medium of instruction for other subjects during the first school year. Oral English must, however, from the beginning be included in the curriculum as a subject of study.

"During the second year and after the child has learned to read in the mother tongue, the formal teaching of reading in English shall be begun.

"From Grade III on, a period not exceeding one hour each day may be allotted to the teaching of French. The term "French" as herein used shall include reading, language study, grammar, analysis, dictation and composition.

"In all grades beyond Grade II, the programme in all subjects other than French shall be that regularly authorized by the Department of Education, and the text-books shall be the English editions authorized for general use throughout the Province. Teachers may, however, offer explanations in the mother tongue when necessary.

"In all such schools instruction in English shall be provided in all subjects throughout the course for all children whose mother tongue is other than French."

The position of the modern languages in the University of Alberta may be more briefly dealt with.

Allusion has already been made to the movement in the early nineties to found a university for the North-West Territories. At that time, as before indicated, the proposal was deemed premature. In 1903, however, the Territorial government passed legislation providing the machinery for the establishment of a state university. As no effort was made to put the proposed institution into operation it is probable that the government merely meant to pre-empt the field of higher education so that when the new prairie provinces should be formed they would inherit no embarrassing legacy of vested private educational rights.

The legislative assembly of Alberta was prompt to act as soon as it was constituted on the granting of autonomy. At the first session of the first parliament, 1906, an Act was passed enabling preliminary steps to be taken looking to the founding of the University of Alberta, and

the new university opened its doors in the autumn term of 1908.

At the inception of the institution and for some years thereafter—so far as the faculty of arts was concerned—Latin and one other language—French or German or Greek—were required for junior matriculation and any two languages through the first two years of college work. This situation remained unchanged till 1916-17 when the titular primacy of Latin as an entrance language ceased. Until 1920, however, a student presenting two languages other than Latin was compelled to pass a special elementary course in that language in his first year. This regulation was suppressed in 1920-21 as a result of the post-war revision of the curriculum and the university now makes obligatory the study of any two languages of post-matriculation grade, modern or classical, for one year only. Thereafter the language courses are optional. Considering the pressure on the curriculum this arrangement seems, on the whole, a fair one and has been generally accepted by all parties concerned as a reasonable solution of the problem. One year of language work after matriculation should equip the student with a sound linguistic tool which will be useful to him in other fields of scholarship, while for the student with a special liking or aptitude for language study the more advanced optional courses are available.

For administrative purposes French and German—the only living tongues in which instruction is at present offered—are grouped in a single department of modern languages. The teaching personnel consists of six instructors on full time—four on the French and two on the German side.

In 1910 an introductory course in Italian was instituted, but owing to war conditions was discontinued in 1916 and

due to lack of demand has not since been revived. Sporadic requests for Spanish have been made by students, but the university has deemed that the time has not yet come to establish courses of instruction in this language.

For students unable to read the original tongues the department offers a course in the modern European literatures in translation. The course attempts to interpret the historic evolution of modern culture through the study of literary masterpieces in English renderings.

It may be noted in passing that the department of modern languages offers a course in French-Canadian literature. This course has been followed with great interest by members of the student body and has also called forth the appreciation of our French-Canadian fellow citizens.

Honours work in modern languages—French and German—has been offered since 1911 in the University of Alberta. At first this took the form simply of specialization in the final two years, but on account of the difficulty of covering the amount of work necessary to justify the granting of an honours degree, admission to honours courses was raised in 1926 to senior matriculation. Combinations of French with Latin and German with Latin may also be taken for honours degrees. Owing to the present demands of the high schools the French-Latin combination is popular.

It is a matter of departmental policy to keep the modern language classes small in numbers—sectioning them when necessary—in order that, to as great an extent as possible, the language taught may be made itself the medium of instruction.

The following table shows the comparative numbers of students enrolled in the various language courses in 1925-26 out of a total registration of 1302:

FRENCH.....	349
GERMAN.....	80
GREEK.....	30
HEBREW.....	3.
LATIN.....	208

Only one year of graduate work, leading to the Master's degree, is offered at the University of Alberta. The library is not sufficiently well equipped to provide research facilities in any proper sense of the term. The courses taken looking to the M.A. are chiefly of the type usually described as open to graduates and undergraduates. There are included, however, both in French and German, introductory courses in philology.

As a further facility it should also be noted that the government of France has made available for the University of Alberta a substantial annual bursary, the appointee to which is thus enabled to pursue a year's graduate study at a French university.

On the French side the university has always openly recognized that Canada is a bilingual country. Professional examinations, for instance, under the control of the university may be written in French. A serious effort has been made in the national interest to give English speaking students a practical command of the French tongue. French is used as early and as completely as possible as the medium of instruction in all courses. The work of the lecture room is supported by the acting of French plays and the programmes of a very active and prosperous French Club. Members of the local French-Canadian community, containing numerous cultivated people, are constant attendants of the Club's meetings, lend it much appreciated practical support and give a reality and naturalness to its proceedings which contribute largely to its success. From a point of view other than

linguistic the Club affords a point of friendly social contact for the members of the two great races of Canada represented in the Edmonton district. This fact may not be without some significance in the common effort of all good citizens to evolve a united and harmonious national spirit.

Founded in 1913 and situated at the provincial capital, the Edmonton Jesuit College represents in Alberta the type of classical French college characteristic of the Quebec educational system. The sub-matriculation instruction offered comprises the primary work of grades V-VIII taught in both English and French, a bilingual commercial course and four years of high school work conducted mainly in French. The college was affiliated with Laval University in 1917 and under the terms of this arrangement prepares students to take the examinations leading to the degrees offered by that institution

BRITISH COLUMBIA

The recorded account of educational development in British Columbia begins in 1849 with the organization of Vancouver Island as a Crown Colony. In this year the first official inducement to learning was provided by the Governors of the Hudson's Bay Company who established a boarding school for the benefit of their Victoria post. Governor Sir James Douglas, in 1851, recommended the building of two schools, the teachers to receive from the Colony salaries of 50 pounds, each pupil contributing in addition an amount not exceeding 30 shillings. This recommendation was carried into effect in 1852; and in 1853 the legislative council made further provision for the maintenance of the newly-founded educational service. By 1865 the Colony had so far increased as to necessitate the appointment of a superintendent of

education. The first to hold this office was Alfred Waddington, now chiefly thought of as the "original promoter of the Canadian Pacific Railway". His successor, John Jessop, had been at some pains to reach the scene of his future honours. Born in Norwich England, he qualified in 1855 as a teacher in Toronto and spent the next four years in Ontario schools. Then he made his way to Fort Garry and thence set forth on foot for the Pacific Coast where, a year or so after his arrival, he set up a private school in the town of Victoria. In 1872 he received his appointment as director of education in the new Canadian Province of British Columbia.

It is in reports issued during the régime of this official that we come upon the first reference to modern language teaching. Amongst the subjects for teachers' examinations we find French—in the list of "extraordinary subjects, less or more non-essential". It was awarded 50 marks out of a possible 2150,—20 of the 50 constituting a pass. There is, however, no reference to recommended text-books nor record of examinations given, if any. The first high school of the province came into being in 1876. French would seem to have remained "more non-essential" till 1880, in which year the high school reports a class of 70 engaged in its acquisition. For a number of years it was the only modern language provided for in the curriculum. German makes its first appearance in 1903 but cannot be said to have attained to any great popularity. Enthusiastic language-lovers have of late years been afforded instruction in Italian at the University of British Columbia—but quite outside the accredited course. The demand for Spanish has not been encouraging although courses in that tongue were given at the university from 1917 till 1921.

In 1874 the first regulations governing certificates of

qualification for teachers were issued. A list of examination subjects was given—which might “be increased or diminished at the pleasure of the Board”. There were six grades of certificate issued, in accordance with the revealed knowledge of the candidate, ranging from third class B, whose possessor had satisfied 30% of the requirements, to first class A which called for an 80% knowledge of the same requirements. French, amongst these, was optional. Various complications were later, at various periods, introduced into this straightforward system, bringing it more into harmony with eastern standards, until, in 1900, it seemed to call for—and received—a fresh simplification. Certificates were then classed as academic (the old first class A), first class, second class and third class. From 1894 no high school teacher might have less than a first class A certificate; this grade was also granted to graduates of British universities, with the condition of taking an examination on the theory of education. At the present time candidates for high school positions must, in the great majority of cases, be university graduates.

For the first few years after high schools were established, *i.e.*, until 1890, there were but two divisions. The text-book used was De Fivas' *Grammaire des Grammaires* together with the accompanying *French Reader*. From 1890 until 1903 there were three divisions in the high school course, and French—from the same text-books—was taught in the lower two only. After 1903 French was taken in all three. In 1907 De Fivas' texts were superseded by Bertenshaw's *French Grammar* divided as follows: 1st yr.—72 pp.; 2nd yr.—106 pp.; 3rd yr.—the whole. With 1909 came a further change. It was permissible to use either Bertenshaw's or Fraser and Squair's *Grammar*,—and examination papers were set from each text. 1914

saw another alteration: Fraser and Squair's was the only grammar used, arranged as follows: 1st yr.—33 chapters; 2nd yr.—66 chapters, together with Bédollière's *La Mère Michel et son Chat*; 3rd yr.—the complete book, together with various reading texts. By 1919 it was thought advisable to introduce a change of methods and of teaching matter. This time the Siepmann *Grammar*—Part I for first and second years (1st yr.—13 lessons; 2nd yr.—the remainder together with a reader): Part II, and a reader, for the 3rd yr. (university matriculation): Part III, for the senior matriculation. So matters remained till 1924. In this year a general demand for wider latitude in choice of texts was definitely expressed. A committee of modern language teachers set to work and the curriculum at present in force was resolved upon and sanctioned by the department of education. A list of recommended grammars and reading texts is given: from this selection the individual teacher may make his own choice of those to be used in the first and second high school years; the same freedom is extended to the reading matter of the third year—but the grammar used up till now is Siepmann, Part II, 20 of the 30 lessons to be taught intensively, the remaining 10—not consecutive ones—to be used for reading only.

The development of German in high school and university has been considerably hindered by the difficulty of getting classes large enough to overcome objections to the expense. For some time now, although the curriculum offers a course equal to French, the time given to it is confined chiefly to the third year in high school, when it may be taken as an option with one of the natural sciences. As a result, only a few pupils may be encouraged to take it—the amount of work to be covered being too great for any but language enthusiasts. The changes in

text-books since the introduction of German to the curriculum are as follows:—

- 1903—1913 Van der Smitten (old edition) *German Grammar*.
 Volkmann's *Kleine Geschichten*.
Stille Wasser (Heath & Co.)
- 1914 Joynes & Meissner—*A German Grammar*.
 Volkmann's *Kleine Geschichten*.
Stille Wasser (Heath & Co.)
- 1915 Van der Smitten (1912 edition) *High School German Grammar and Reader*.
 Volkmann's *Kleine Geschichten*.
Stille Wasser (Heath & Co.)
- 1917 Siepmann—*Public School German Primer*.
 Volkmann's *Kleine Geschichten*.
Stille Wasser (Heath & Co.)
- 1918 Siepmann—*Primary German Course*.
 Goebel's *Rübezahl* (Macmillan).
 Allen's *German Life* (Holt & Co.).
- 1923 Zinnecker—*Deutsch für Anfänger*. (Heath & Co.).
 Haertel's *German Reader for Beginners* (Ginn & Co.).

Until the year 1915 an alternative course was permitted those students who had no intention of taking a university course. Many of these became teachers. Difficulties, however, arose. Some of these students later decided to enter the university and found it a hardship to repeat their years of study in order to matriculate or even to spend the time required to make up subjects not hitherto taken. These alternative examinations were therefore dropped and practically all high school courses now end in the possibility of university training. There still remains one course which admits only to the normal school—but this too may be enlarged by one or two subjects so as to permit of matriculation.

Not many of the persons using these alternative courses troubled to prepare any language beyond Latin, although they might do so if they chose. Presumably those who studied outside of high schools—or any schools—found the difficulties too great. The first class curriculum of 1880 called for a knowledge of French grammar and the

reading of Voltaire's *Histoire de Charles XII*, books I, II and III—also Corneille: *Le Cid*. To this was added in 1884 Fasquelle's *Shorter French Course*. In 1886 the first two books of La Fontaine's *Fables* replaced book III of Voltaire's *Charles XII*. In 1892 an oral examination supplemented the other two but was dropped in 1898. From 1900 on, the modern language requirements of these courses followed more or less closely (generally somewhat slowly), those of the ones which led to university matriculation. By 1916-17 they were quite merged in the latter. It was found much more practical to take the subjects laid down for the majority of students and to pass to teaching after a year or so of university work.

The first legislative act incorporating a provincial university was passed in 1890—but for many years thereafter most of the work of this institution was done under the auspices of eastern Canadian colleges. Pupils were prepared in various high schools to take the matriculation of the universities of McGill, Toronto or Dalhousie, chiefly, however, of the first-named. In 1899 Vancouver College became affiliated with McGill and carried on its work under the direction of that institution. Victoria College followed in 1902. Later—in 1906—the former entered into even closer relation with the Montreal university, under the title of McGill University College; the latter, in 1907. Three years of the prescribed course were carried through in Vancouver and the students took the final year's work in Montreal. In 1915, however, the western colleges undertook to give the entire four years' course and were established permanently as the University of British Columbia.

The present provincial staff of modern language teachers consists of 8 at the University of British Columbia and 50 in the high schools—21 of the latter giving a

part of their time to other subjects. Of the above 58 there are 6 foreign-born teachers giving instruction in their native language. Five of these received their appointments primarily because of this special qualification. The university gave, in 1926-27, French courses to 750 students—German courses to 60; for the same period the high schools sent up to the grade XI examinations 1560 candidates in French and 42 in German.

The mode of testing the achievements of modern language students has undergone many variations. The first published high school examination, 1880, consisted of six questions—*two*—"translate and parse"; *three*—"Give French for"; *one*—"Give feminines of sundry adjectives". By 1885 the paper contained two questions couched in French, one of which must be answered in French. Students were still required to parse as in English grammar papers. From 1892-1898 candidates for first class certificates were obliged, in addition to written tests, to take an oral examination. The 1894 paper consisted of various questions testing grammar knowledge, the customary parsing, and passages to be translated into English. Then came English sentences to be translated into French with the accompanying note that these last "must be attempted". The affiliation of Vancouver College with McGill University, 1899, and the change to Bertenshaw's grammar and then to Fraser and Squair's text seems to have brought with it a corresponding alteration of the questions to types then in favour in eastern Canada. With the introduction of the Siepmann grammars the type changed again—the chief difference noticeable being the use of a more practical vocabulary than had before been required. When the larger high schools obtained the privilege of promoting pupils to grade X and XI by means of their own tests, it became

possible to examine orally and by dictation with obviously beneficial results. The grade XI examination now set by the department of education offers at present two papers, one testing chiefly on syntactical points and the other divided usually into three parts—(1) a French passage for sight translation; (2) questions in French to be answered in French or explanations of certain expressions from the term's reading to be made in French; (3) an English passage to be translated into French. The pupil must take the required percentage of each paper in order to pass. It is hoped that before long oral examinations will be made possible in this grade as well as in the two preceding ones. A number of the French courses in each year at the University of British Columbia are conducted in the French language and oral examinations are given throughout as well as the usual written ones.

The supervision of the modern language work in high schools is done by the principal—or in the larger establishments, by the head of the department. Annual inspections are made by the provincial high school inspectors—and in Vancouver and Victoria by the municipal inspectors. The department of education has not as yet seen its way to maintain specially trained supervisors for each department of its secondary schools.

Of late years the strong desire of modern language teachers for some further training than is afforded in taking a B.A. degree has been met in various ways—by summer courses in French teaching offered by the university; by travel scholarships; and by post-graduate work. An increasing number annually take advantage of the holiday training. There are two travel scholarships available; one, founded by Lieut.-Gov. Nichol during his term of office and the other provided by the French government. Five students have already profited by

these arrangements and several others have taken the same courses in Paris at their own expense. The first post-graduate work in modern languages at the University of British Columbia was done in 1920. During the last session five students were taking such work—and three degrees were granted.

A considerable impetus was given to provincial educational work by the founding, in 1916, of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation, which at once established sections in every department of school activity. The modern language section of this association has been from the beginning very active and has received the fullest degree of co-operation both from the department of education and from the university. The section meets annually at Easter—and has smaller committees at work throughout the year. The present high school modern language course is the result of the joint efforts of such a committee, aided by representatives from the department of education and from the university.

There has never been in the province any question as to the equality of French and German with Greek and Latin. From the time of their introduction to the high school curriculum they have been regarded as entitled to the same footing. The world war naturally affected the attitude of the public to all four: French took first place and, although there has never been a time since 1912 when German was not taught, this subject for a time suffered in general estimation. In this attitude a reaction begins of late to be perceptible. An effect more remarkable was the restlessness of mind engendered by the events of the time and the inevitable speculations as to their cause. All old procedures were questioned; all former aims doubted. The teaching body, troubled by outside criticism and inward misgivings, decided to ask for an edu-

cational survey. The government granted this request and the report of the survey was published in 1925. The first result has been the opening in certain centres of the middle school or junior high school, which, it is hoped, will permit the teaching of modern languages to be begun in grade VII—three years earlier than has yet been possible. This development gives hopes of more solid achievements for the future.

STATISTICS

The figures in the following tables have been compiled mainly from three sources, (i) official data as given in provincial reports and collected by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics in the *Annual Survey of Education in Canada*, (ii) questionnaires, and (iii) information supplied by registrars of universities and provincial departments of education. The tables make no claim to be complete, and in the case of data collected by means of questionnaires, are probably of doubtful accuracy; but it is believed that they are valuable as showing the general conditions and tendencies of modern language teaching in the schools, and, to a less degree, in the universities of Canada.

Tables are grouped as follows: I. enrolment, II. examinations, III. high school questionnaire, IV. private schools, V. universities.

The usual abbreviations are employed for the names of provinces, and in addition, C.I.=collegiate institute, H.S.=high school, C.S.=continuation school, Int=intermediate school (Que.), A.S.E.=*Annual Survey of Education*.

Since tendencies and comparative statistics are more important than bare numerical statements, many of the tables have been re-drafted in percentage figures.

I. ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

ENROLMENT IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN, COMPILED FROM RETURNS OF THE DOMINION BUREAU OF STATISTICS, ANNUAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION

1. For Six Provinces, years ending June 1921, 1924, 1925, 1926.

		N.S.	N.B.	Ont.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Total
French	1921	5659	2087	27956	3671 ¹		5677	
	1924	7971	2955	48947	4506	2973	7498	74860
	1925	8567	3077	53032	4891	2857	8034	80458
	1926 ²	8927	3200	56218		5074 ³	8546	
German ⁴	1921	214	—	1795	67			
	1924	390	—	1702	111	59	25	2287
	1925	523	—	1797	101	63	—	2484
	1926 ²	572	—	1968				
Latin	1921	3517	1532	25583	3619		4273	
	1924	4771	2326	42797	3481	2317	5377	61069
	1925	5110	2500	45781	3562	1628	5524	64105
	1926 ²	5266	2573	46631		2197 ⁵	5418	
Total Enrolment	1921	9705	2270	34128	7082		7259	
	1924	11632	3204	66784	6708	7878	9889	106131
	1925	11853	3445	74256	6756	8398	10597	115305
	1926 ²	11948	3443	78657		14453 ³	11779	

1 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

		N.S.	N.B. ⁴	Ont.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Total
French	1921	58.3	91.9	81.9	51.8		78.2	
	1924	68.5	92.2	73.3	67.2	37.7	75.8	70.5
	1925	72.3	89.3	71.4	72.4	34.0	75.8	69.8
	1926	74.7	92.9	71.5		35.1	72.6	
German	1921	2.2	—	5.3	0.9			
	1924	3.4	—	2.5	1.7	0.7	0.3	2.2
	1925	4.4	—	2.4	1.5	0.8	—	2.2
	1926	4.8	—	2.5				

¹Figures for 1920.

²Only partial figures are available for 1926.

³German is taught also in Manitoba, but this province does not tabulate pupils by subjects of study.

⁴New Brunswick has a high percentage of enrolment in French, and is the only province in which Latin is increasing in popularity.

⁵For Alberta the figures for total enrolment include all pupils in secondary schools, whereas those for enrolment in French and Latin refer only to town, city, and private schools. This probably accounts for the low percentages for languages in Alberta.

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Latin	1921	36.2	67.5	75.0	51.1		58.9	
	1924	41.0	72.6	64.1	51.9	29.4	54.4	57.5
	1925	43.1	72.6	61.7	52.7	19.4	52.1	55.6
	1926	44.1	74.7	59.3		15.2	46.	

2. QUEBEC. TABLE SHOWING (i) ENROLMENT IN ENGLISH IN CLASSICAL COLLEGES, AND (ii) ENROLMENT IN FRENCH IN PROTESTANT SECONDARY SCHOOLS, QUEBEC, 1926.

	Classical Colleges	Secondary Protestant Schools	
	Number of pupils in English and Latin	Number of pupils in French VIII and IX	X and XI
1912	4710		
1916	5099	3171	2076
1921	6159	3605	1426
1924	7184	4525	2264
1925	7213	4589	2280
1926	7822	4661	2432

Statistical returns for Quebec do not show enrolment by subjects, but English and Latin are compulsory subjects in the classical colleges, and French in the protestant secondary schools. It is estimated that 90% of pupils in grades X and XI of the protestant schools take Latin, and 60% in the intermediate grades, VIII and IX.

3. NOVA SCOTIA. ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1911	1916	1921	1924	1925	1926
French	3087	4431	5659	7971	8567	8927
German	382	287	214	390	523	572
Latin	2586	3055	3517	4771	5110	5266
Total	8676	9726	9705	11632	11853	11948

3 (a) THE SAME AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

	1911	1916	1921	1924	1925	1926
French	35.6	45.6	58.3	68.5	72.3	74.7
German	4.4	3.0	2.2	3.4	4.4	4.8
Latin	29.8	31.4	36.2	41.0	43.1	44.1

3 (b) NOVA SCOTIA. ENROLMENT BY GRADES IN FRENCH, GERMAN, AND LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

		IX	X	XI	XII	Total
French	1924	3714	2587	1282	388	7971
	1925	3738	2690	1674	465	8567
	1926	4027	2806	1609	485	8927

German	1924		217	110	63	390
	1925		317	133	73	523
	1926		319	162	91	572
Latin	1924	2298	1377	781	315	4771
	1925	2329	1522	907	352	5110
	1926	2450	1490	933	393	5266
Total	1924	5344	3769	1958	561	11632
Enrolment	1925	5270	3820	2199	564	11853
	1926	5537	3686	2126	599	11948

3 (c) THE SAME, SHOWING APPROXIMATE PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT BY YEARS AND BY SEXES.

		IX			X			XI			XII			Totals		
		B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.
French	1924	72	68	70	70	68	69	60	69	65	76	64	69	69	68	69
	1925	71	71	71	74	68	70	80	74	76	88	77	82	74	71	72
	1926	74	72	73	78	75	76	77	75	76	87	77	81	76	74	75
German	1924				7	5	6	6	5	6	11	12	11	4	3	8
	1925				8	8	8	6	6	6	14	12	13	4	4	4
	1926				8	9	9	6	9	8	13	16	15	4	5	5
Latin	1924	44	42	43	41	34	37	46	36	40	64	50	56	45	39	41
	1925	43	45	44	43	38	40	47	38	41	66	59	62	45	42	43
	1926	45	44	44	44	39	40	46	43	44	74	60	66	46	43	44

LEGEND. In 1925, XI Grade, 80% of the boys, 74% of the girls, and 76% of all pupils, were taking French.

The figures of tables 3, 3a, show a large increase, gross and proportional, in registration in French. German recovers its position after a drop in the war and subsequent years, and Latin makes a steady increase. Further examination of returns from this province shows that in one-teacher rural schools the enrolment in French is about 50%, and in two-teacher schools about 65%.

Table 3c indicates (i) that a larger percentage of boys than of girls take language courses, and that the difference increases in the higher grades; (ii) that of the pupils who complete the four-year course, about four-fifths take

French, and two-thirds take Latin. Tables of percentage enrolment by grades and sexes are given also for Saskatchewan and Alberta. See tables 6*c*, 7*b*.

4. NEW BRUNSWICK. ENROLMENT IN FRENCH AND LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1911	1916	1921	1924	1925	1926
French	1514	1894	2087	2955	3077	3200
Latin	1386	1525	1532	2326	2500	2573
Total Enrolment	1885	2161	2270	3204	3445	3443

4 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

	1911	1916	1921	1924	1925	1926
French	80.3	87.6	91.9	92.2	89.3	92.9
Latin	73.5	70.6	67.5	72.6	72.6	74.7

4 (b) NEW BRUNSWICK. ENROLMENT IN FRENCH AND LATIN BY GRADES, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

		IX	X	XI	XII	Total
French	1924	1449	897	592	17	2955
	1925	1533	904	621	19	3077
	1926	1533	986	650	31	3200
Latin	1924	1149	697	463	17	2326
	1925	1222	712	547	19	2500
	1926	1233	768	541	31	2573
Total Enrolment	1924	1580	996	611	17	3204
	1925	1728	1007	691	19	3445

4 (c) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF ENROLMENT BY GRADES.

		IX	X	XI	XII	Total
French	1924	91.7	90.1	96.9	100	92.2
	1925	88.7	89.8	89.9	100	89.3
Latin	1924	72.7	70	75.8	100	72.6
	1925	70.7	70.7	79.2	100	72.6

The enrolment in French in New Brunswick increases between 1911 and 1916, and then remains steady at about 90%. Latin has little change from its levels of 73-75%, except for a drop in 1921. All fourth year pupils take French and Latin.

5. ONTARIO HIGH SCHOOLS, COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES AND DAY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS; ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH AND LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	French	German	Spanish	Latin	Total Enrolment
1867.....	2164	—		5171	5696
1872.....	3091	341		3860	7968
1877.....	3091	442		4955	9229
1882.....	5363	962		4591	12348
1887.....	6180	1350		5409	17459
1892.....	10398	2796		9006	22837
1897.....	13761	5169		16873	24390
1899.....	13464	5513		19131	22460
1900.....	12650	3894		18073	21723
1911.....	20684	5024		23443	32227
1917.....	20996	2484		21118	32220
1921.....	28908	1803	148	26163	36728
1924.....	42549	1702	214	36698	57447
1925.....	45950	1797	238	39099	63711
1926.....	49162	1968	217	39781	68713

5 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

	French	German	Latin
1867.....	38	—	90.8
1872.....	35.5	4.3	48.4
1877.....	33.5	4.8	53.7
1882.....	43.4	7.8	37.2
1887.....	35.4	7.7	31
1892.....	45.5	12.2	39.4
1897.....	56.4	21.2	69.2
1899.....	59.9	24.5	85.2
1900.....	58.2	17.9	83.2
1911.....	64.2	15.6	72.7
1917.....	65.2	7.7	65.5
1921.....	78.7	4.9	71.2
1924.....	74.1	3	63.9
1925.....	72.1	2.8	61.4
1926.....	71.5	2.9	57.9

5 (b) ONTARIO CONTINUATION SCHOOLS. ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1911	1917	1921	1924	1925	1926
French.....	3401	3627	5086	6398	7082	7056
German.....	165	81	10	—	—	—
Latin.....	4385	3958	5031	6099	6682	6850
Total Enrolment.....	5753	5082	5823	9337	10545	9944

5 (c) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

	1911	1917	1921	1924	1925	1928
French	59.1	71.4	87.3	68.5	67.2	71
German	2.9	1.6				
Latin	76.2	77.9	86	65.3	63.4	68.9

The most interesting feature of the tabulation for Ontario is the column showing the varying popularity of German. The gross registration reaches its highest with 5513 in 1899, having almost doubled in the five year period preceding 1897. The same approximately is true for Latin in those years. Both changes appear to be due to alterations in the examination requirements. The table indicates also the inauguration of the teaching of Spanish in 1921. A large increase in total registration occurs between 1921 and 1924. Turning to the percentages it will be observed that there is a steady growth in the figures for French up to 1921; in the column of table 5*a* headed Latin, the progression is uneven but it appears that the language is declining in popularity; the increase in total enrolment does not greatly add to the number of Latin students. The figures for continuation schools, tables 5*b* and 5*c*, show the same tendencies and indicate further the disappearance of German from these schools.

6. SASKATCHEWAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN, AND LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
French	3696	3716	4506	4891	
German	97	28	111	101	
Latin	3039	3318	3481	3562	
Total Enrolment ..	4798	5736	6744	6756	

6 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
French	77	64.8	67.2	72.4	
German	2		1.7	1.5	
Latin	63.3	57.9	51.9	52.7	

6 (b) SASKATCHEWAN COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES AND HIGH SCHOOLS BY GRADES, 1924, 1925.

		IX	X	XI	XII	Total
French	1924	1591	1261	1171	483	4506
	1925	1679	1463	1153	506	4891
German	1924	23	47	34	7	111
	1925	28	21	32	20	101
Latin	1924	1309	926	8676	379	3481
	1925	1385	1015	719	443	3562
Total Enrolment	1924	2259	1869	1800	780	6708
	1925	2078	1859	1828	991	6756

6 (c) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF GRADE ENROLMENT, BY SEXES.

		I			II			III			IV			Totals		
		B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.
French	1924	70	71	70	70	66	67	66	64	65	59	65	62	68	67	67
	1925	83	79	81	83	75	79	64	63	63	58	62	60	75	71	72
German	1924	1	1	1	3	2	3	1	2	2	1	1		2	2	2
	1925	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	3	2	1	2	1
Latin	1924	59	57	58	51	49	50	52	46	48	46	51	49	54	51	52
	1925	70	64	67	57	53	55	45	35	39	46	44	45	58	50	53

7. ALBERTA SECONDARY SCHOOLS: ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN, AND LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
French	3123	1572	2973	2857	5074
German	74	64	59	63	
Latin	2606	1999	2317	1628	2197
Total Enrolment	6217	5790	7878	8398	14453

7 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT.

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
French	50.2	27.2	37.7	34.0	35.1
German	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.8	
Latin	41.9	34.5	29.4	19.4	15.2

7 (b) ALBERTA, ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN, AND LATIN, BY GRADES, 1924, 1925, 1926.

		IX	X	XI	XII	Total
French	1924	1181	929	623	240	2973
	1925	1544	707	425	181	2857
	1926	2395	1284	1041	354	5074
German	1924		19	26	14	59
	1925	16	21	19	7	63
Latin	1924	1183	583	388	163	2317
	1925	488	636	395	109	1628
	1926	583	920	450	244	2197
Total Enrolment . .	1924	3160	2485	1620	613	7878
	1925	3376	2402	2003	617	8398

7 (c) THE SAME AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL ENROLMENT BY GRADES.

		IX			X			XI			XII			Totals		
		B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.	B.	G.	T.
French	1924	34	40	37	40	36	37	39	38	38	36	42	39	37	38	38
	1925	43	48	46	29	30	29	27	17	21	24	33	29	34	34	34
German	1924				1	—	1	1	2	2	4	1	2	1	1	1
	1925				1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1
Latin	1924	37	38	37	37	15	23	27	22	24	25	28	27	34	26	29
	1925	16	13	14	29	25	26	23	18	15	11	22	18	21	18	19

Inspection of the tables of groups 6 and 7 shows a marked difference between conditions in Saskatchewan and Alberta. In the former, table 6*a*, it appears that the percentages in French and Latin are respectively 72 and 53 but in Alberta these have dropped to 34¹ and 19. German is studied in both these provinces but with only a small enrolment. The table of percentages by grades in Saskatchewan shows a tendency to abandon the study of French after the 2nd year and that of Latin after the 1st year. This is true also in Alberta where the new unit system of examination may induce a number of pupils to study languages for 1 year only: and the case is further

¹See table 1, note 5.

affected by the circumstances reported in table 1a, note 6. See also table 13.

8. BRITISH COLUMBIA, HIGH SCHOOLS: ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN, AND LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1917	1921	1924	1925	1926
French	4192	5677	7498	8034	8546
German	20	—	25	—	—
Latin	4220	4273	5377	5524	5418
Total					
Enrolment	4841	7259	9889	10597	11779

8 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF THE ENROLMENT.

	1917	1921	1924	1925	1926
French	86.6	78.2	75.8	75.8	72.6
German	0.4	—	0.3	—	—
Latin	87.2	58.9	54.4	52.1	46

9. ENROLMENT IN GERMAN FOR FIVE PROVINCES FOR YEARS GIVEN.

Provincial Statistics for enrolment in German are available for the following provinces: Nova Scotia, Ontario, Alberta, Saskatchewan, British Columbia. None is taught in New Brunswick and Quebec. The following table shows enrolment in German from 1911 onwards with percentages of total High School enrolment.

Year	Nova Scotia	Ontario C.I. & H.S.	Alberta C.S.	Saskatchewan	British Columbia
1911	382				
	4.43%				
1912	298				
	3.45%				
1913	321	5142	177		
	3.72%	14.94%	3.19%		
1914	314	5396	177		
	3.52%	14.79%	2.91%		
1915	357	4606	160		
	3.77%	11.96%	2.35%		
1916	287				
	2.95%				
1917	222	2297	81		20
	2.44%	7.96%	1.59%		
1918	169	2197	73		6
	1.83%	7.55%	1.43%		
1919	120	1638	48		8
	1.31%	5.32%	.95%		

1920	118	1703	24			
	1 24%	5 15%	46%			
1921	214	1795	10			
	2 21%	5 25%	17%			
1922	234	1710	1	74	97	16
	2 12%	4 33%		1 19%	2 02%	
1923	197	1835		64	28	25
	1 62%	4 11%		1 10%	48%	
1924	390	1710		59	111	25
	3 35%	3 52%		74%	1 65%	
1925	523	1685		63	101	
	4 41%	3 23%		75%	1 49%	
1926	572	1968				
	4 8%	2 5%				

II. EXAMINATIONS

10. ONTARIO MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS; NUMBER OF CANDIDATES AND PERCENTAGE OF PASSES IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN. COMPILED FROM PROVINCIAL REPORTS.

(i) Middle School (Junior Matriculation).

	1924		1925		1926	
	Wrote	%	Wrote	%	Wrote	%
	passed		passed		passed	
French Authors.....	6534	85.2	7331	73.8	7968	74.9
French Composition....	7206	66.9	8242	61.8	8612	64.3
Spanish Authors.....	105	57.1	110	60	105	61.9
Spanish Composition....	98	44.9	120	50	101	67.3
German Authors.....	402	69.9	311	77.5	394	92.7
German Composition....	392	64	464	64.9	461	80.3
Latin Authors.....	6132	79.6	6661	75.2	6740	64.6
Latin Composition.....	7616	67.1	7499	66.1	7673	73.7

(ii) Upper School (Senior Matriculation).

	1924		1925		1926	
	Wrote	%	Wrote	%	Wrote	%
	passed		passed		passed	
French Authors.....	2412	91	2866	91	3383	91.8
French Composition....	2621	87	2826	79.5	3516	81
Spanish Authors.....	38	84.2	36	66.7	27	85.2
Spanish Composition....	37	86.5	33	60.6	28	82.1
German Authors.....	154	94.2	169	84	186	89.8
German Composition....	154	90.9	166	85.5	176	85.8
Latin Authors.....	1562	84.7	1835	81.6	2328	81.7
Latin Composition.....	1719	80.2	1889	79.5	2379	80.5

ONTARIO: COMPARATIVE MATRICULATION RECORD OF EARLY AND LATE BEGINNERS IN FRENCH. COMPILED FROM RETURNS MADE BY CERTAIN PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

10 (a) TABLE SHOWING NUMBERS OF CANDIDATES FROM GROUP A. (EARLY BEGINNERS), AND GROUP B. (LATE BEGINNERS), WHO WROTE EXAMINATIONS IN FRENCH FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR MATRICULATION, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE YEAR OF THE SECONDARY COURSE IN WHICH THEY WROTE, AND THE DIVISIONS IN WHICH THEY WERE PLACED.

COMPOSITION	Number		Number placed in Divisions									
	Writing		I		II		III		Credit		Failure	
	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.
<i>Junior</i> Year												
2	33	11	1	0	0	0	3	0	13	2	16	9
3	142	45	19	6	29	5	18	4	61	19	15	11
4	220	285	47	40	28	54	51	54	50	76	44	41
Total	395	341	67	46	57	59	72	58	124	97	75	61
<i>Senior</i>												
4	109	27	18	3	11	4	19	3	43	7	18	10
5	108	113	11	14	14	27	13	18	37	28	33	26
Total	217	140	29	17	25	31	32	21	80	35	51	36

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<i>Junior</i>	2	32	11	3	0	1	0	2	0	19	3	7	8
	3	143	46	29	7	40	4	27	6	28	20	19	9
	4	203	288	51	69	49	76	31	50	48	63	24	30
Total		378	345	83	76	90	80	60	56	95	86	50	47
<i>Senior</i>													
	4	116	21	24	2	26	6	24	3	36	9	6	1
	5	108	117	10	20	17	32	15	17	50	34	16	14
Total		224	138	34	22	43	38	39	20	86	43	22	15

LEGEND: 33 candidates of Group A, and 11 of Group B, wrote the Junior Matriculation paper in French Composition. They were placed: in Division I, 1 of Group A and 0 of Group B, etc.

10 (b) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES TO NEAREST UNIT.

COMPOSITION	% writing		Number placed in Division									
			I		II		III		Credit		Failure	
	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.
<i>Junior</i> Year												
2	8	3	3	—	0	—	9	—	39	18	48	82
3	36	13	13	13	20	11	13	9	43	42	11	24
4	56	83	21	14	13	19	23	19	23	27	20	14
Total			17	13	14	17	18	17	31	28	19	18
<i>Senior</i>												
4	50	19	17	11	10	15	17	11	39	26	17	37
5	50	81	10	12	13	24	12	16	34	25	31	23
Total			13	12	12	22	15	15	37	25	24	26

AUTHORS												
<i>Junior</i>	2	8	3	9	—	3	—	6	—	59	27	22 73
	3	38	13	20	15	28	9	19	13	20	43	13 20
	4	54	84	25	24	24	26	15	17	24	22	12 10
	Total			22	22	24	23	16	16	25	25	13 14
<i>Senior</i>	4	52	15	21	10	22	29	21	14	31	43	5 5
	5	48	85	9	17	16	27	14	15	46	29	15 12
	Total			15	16	19	28	17	14	38	31	10 11

LEGEND: 8% of Group A, and 3% of Group B candidates wrote Junior Matriculation French Composition in their 2nd High School Year. 3% of the A candidates who wrote in the 2nd year were placed in Class I, etc.

These results may be compared with the figures for the Matriculation Examination for the years 1924, 1925 and 1926 in table 10.

11. ALBERTA, BRITISH COLUMBIA AND MANITOBA: NUMBER OF CANDIDATES AND PERCENTAGES OF PASSES IN MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS IN FRENCH AND GERMAN, 1926.

ALBERTA	Candidates	% passed
French—1.....	2955	63.8
—2.....	1411	74.5
—3.....	297	89.2
German—1.....	34	73.5
—2.....	28	67.5
—3.....	14	78.6

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Grade XI	Candidates	% passed
French Translation.....	1788	81.1
French Grammar.....	1774	88.4
German Authors.....	37	78.4
German Grammar.....	37	81.1
Grade XII		
French Literature.....	178	88.2
French Language.....	173	81.5

MANITOBA	Candidates	% passed	Candidates	% passed
	Grade XI		Grade XII	
French Authors.....	1653	70.7	232	94.4
French Grammar....	1795	60.6	231	66.7

III. TABLES COMPILED FROM THE HIGH SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE

In the following tables these abbreviations are used: C.I.=collegiate institute, H.S.=high school, C.S.=continuation school, Int.=intermediate school (Que.), A.S.E.=*Annual Survey of Education*.

12. TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OFFERING 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 YEARS OF INSTRUCTION IN MODERN LANGUAGES, AND IN LATIN.

FRENCH	<i>Years offered</i>	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ont. C.I. & H.S.	Ont. C.S.	P.E.I.	Que.	Sask. C.I.	Sask. C.S.	Total
FRENCH	1	1				1			3	3		1	9
	2	5	3		7	1	1	26	12	11		8	74
	3	12	48	33	32	20	9	80	3	23	3	102	374
	4	3	12	9	1	11	41	37		30	10	28	200
	5			1			100	1			1	1	113
GERMAN	1		3				4					1	8
	2			3		1	14				1	1	20
	3	1				6	26				1	6	39
	4						22				3	3	28
	5												
LATIN	1	3	1		1	1			3	5		8	22
	2	4	2	8	5	1	1	27	10	10		8	77
	3	10	46	20	24	20	8	80	3	30	3	88	350
	4	1	9	3	4	11	36	35		7	10	28	153
	5			2	1		114			1	1		119

13. TABLE SHOWING ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND LATIN, 1926, BY YEARS OR GRADES OF STUDY.

	Year	Ont.										Sask.		Total
		Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	C.I., H.S. & Voc. S.		Ont. C.S.	P.E.I.	Que.	C.I. & H.S.	Sask. C.S.	
FRENCH	1	1922	3583	3218	1553	1714	16789	2468	2468	720	2505	1772	1351	37595
	2	1041	2379	2650	904	1378	11813	1966	1966	716	1791	1507	1077	27222
	3	313	1578	2363	621	918	8077	1075	1075	170	1276	1086	855	18332
	4	39	121	596	19	356	4916	168	168	101	757	757	190	8020
	5			84			2531						28	2643
Total in French % in French GERMAN		3315	7661	8911	3097	4366	44127	5677	5677	1707	6329	5122	3501	93813
	1	63	79.8	82.6	89.9	88.1	85.2	78.5	78.5	100	100	86		
	2	7	38	21		258	1020					4	54	1402
	3	5				116	408					3	46	578
	4	4				56	270					3	40	373
Total in German % in German LATIN		16	38	21		430	1771					23	11	107
	1					8.7	3.4					33	151	2460
	2	774	2390	2120	1222	1445	12933	2360	2360	720	1714	1540	1094	28312
	3	309	1538	1178	712	947	9429	1733	1733	716	1102	963	712	19339
	4	138	928	695	547	601	7005	1014	1014	170	744	698	448	12988
Total in Latin % in Latin Total sampled		26	47	308	19	279	4853	159	159	101	453	469	101	6815
	5			46			2013					9	1	2069
	1	1247	4903	4347	2500	3272	36233	5266	5266	1707	4013	3679	2356	69523
	2	23.7	51.1	40.3	72.6	66.1	70	72.8	72.8	100		61.7		
	3	5259	9597	10793	3445	4954	51800	7232	7232	1707		5962		

In table 12 the *modes* are *italicized* to show which is the commonest practice in the schools of each province. Thus it is indicated that the three year French course is usual in all systems except Ontario collegiate institutes and high schools, Saskatchewan collegiate institutes, and in Quebec. A fourth year is offered by a number of schools—usually in cities—in all provinces, and in Ontario alone is the five year course the norm. The figures vary only slightly for Latin and German.

It will be observed that the percentage figures in table 13 are in general higher than those calculated from the official returns. (See table 1a). Two factors combine to produce this discrepancy; official figures take cognizance of secondary work done in schools other than high schools, where the percentage of modern language pupils is likely to be lower; and, secondly, it is probable that the schools omitting to make return of the H.S.Q. are those in which the modern language work is weak and the proportional enrolment small. It is doubtful, too, whether the figures given in the H.S.Q. for total enrolment are in all cases accurately stated; in a score of cases comparison with official figures shows that individual schools have returned too few under total enrolment and too many under language enrolment. The table is, however, useful in supplementing the official returns where these are not compiled by grades and subjects of study. In three provinces the returns were not usable, largely on account of confusion between primary and secondary enrolment in the same school, and partly because the large number of rural schools doing secondary work made it impossible to secure a sufficient sampling of the field. In such cases the data have been supplemented from official sources.

The percentages in tables 14 and 15 were calculated

with a view to discovering whether the mortality in French was caused by pupils dropping the subject after one or two years, or by their leaving school altogether. Inspection of the figures for the second year in table 14 shows that casualties in Latin are higher than those in French, and by table 15 it is clear that the enrolment in French by school years remains fairly constant in those provinces where such data are available. In Ontario also, where only 72% of beginners in French reach the second year, the total loss of enrolment is 27.5%, which practically accounts for all.

14. ENROLMENT IN SECOND AND LATER YEARS OF FRENCH AND LATIN EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE OF ENROLMENT IN THE FIRST YEAR OF THE SAME.

	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ont.	Sask.
1st year	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
2nd year—French.....	54	66	82	58	80	72	85
Latin.....	40	64	56	58	66	73	63
3rd year—French.....	16	44	73	40	54	48	61
Latin.....	18	39	33	45	42	52	45
4th year—French.....	2		19	1	21	26	43
Latin.....	3	2	15	2	19	3	330
5th year—French.....			3			13	
Latin.....			2			13	

Note:—In Quebec and Prince Edward Island all High School pupils take French.

15. ENROLMENT BY GRADES IN FRENCH, EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENROLMENT IN EACH GRADE, FOUR PROVINCES, A.S.E. 1924.

	IX	X	XI	XII
Alta.....	37 %	37 %	38 %	39 %
Sask.....	70	67	65	62
N.S.....	70	69	65	69
N.B.....	92	90	97	100

TABLE 16. NUMBER AND LENGTH OF WEEKLY PERIODS IN FRENCH, BY YEARS OF INSTRUCTION, AND BY PROVINCES.

LEGEND—In the first year, 37 Ontario high schools give 5 periods of 35 minutes. Totals for horizontal lines read: 32 schools in British Columbia give 5 periods in the first year. Totals for columns read: 67 schools in Canada have 5 weekly periods of 30 minutes in first year French.

YEAR I.

No. of Periods	Prov.	Length of period in minutes										Total
		15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	
7	Alta.				1							1
	Sask. H.S.				1							1
	Sask. C.S.		1									1
	Ont. H.S.				1							1
	Total		1		3							4
6	B.C.						2	1				3
	Sask. C.S.		1									1
	Ont. C.I.					1	1					2
	Ont. H.S.				1		1					2
	Que. H.S.			1	1							2
	Que. I.S.			1								1
	Total		1	2	2	1	4	1				11
5	B.C.				3	1	17	9	2			32
	Alta.				2	5	8	2				17
	Sask. H.S.				1	1						2
	Sask. C.S.	1	2	2	7	2	1	2				16
	Man.				5	5	1	1				12
	Ont. C.I.				1	14	10	1				26
	Ont. H.S.				15	37	13					65
	Ont. C.S.			6	17	4	1					28
	Que. H.S.		1	3	13	1	4					22
	Que. I.S.	5	8	1	1		1				1	17
	N.B.										1	1
	P.E.I.		1									1
	N.S.		1		2	1						4
	Total	6	13	12	67	71	56	15	2			243
4	B.C.					1	6	4	1			12
	Sask. H.S.				1	4	1					6
	Sask. C.S.		2	4	4	2		3			1	16
	Man.				1	3	4	2				10
	Ont. C.I.					10	13	1				24
	Ont. H.S.			1	4	17	11					33
	Ont. C.S.			52	45	2						99
	Que. H.S.			2	3	2	1					8
	Que. I.S.	4	3	2	1							10
	N.B.				1		3	1	1			6
	P.E.I.							1				1
	N.S.				1	1	1	2	2			7
	Total	4	5	61	61	42	40	14	4	0	1	232

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No. of Periods	Prov.	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	Total
3	B.C.			1	2	1			1	1	3	9
	Alta.					1	1					2
	Sask. H.S.				1	9	1	1				12
	Sask. C.S.	1	6	7	14	5	2	3				37
	Man.			3	1	6	5					15
	Ont. C.I.					1	4					5
	Ont. H.S.				1	3						4
	Ont. C.S.			6	4							10
	Que. H.S.										1	1
	Que. I.S.			1	1							2
	N.B.				2		3	3	2	1	2	13
	P.E.I.		1		2		3	1				7
	N.S.		2					6	2		2	12
	Total		9	18	28	26	19	14	5	2	8	129
2	Sask. C.S.		6	4	18	2	2	3		1	6	42
	Man.				1	2						3
	Ont. H.S.				1							1
	N.B.		1		2			1	1	1	4	10
	P.E.I.	2	1		3			1			2	9
	N.S.		1		1			3	2		1	8
	Total	2	9	4	26	4	2	8	3	2	13	73
YEAR II.												
7	Sask.				1							1
6	B.C.						1	1				2
	Alta.					1						1
	Ont. C.S.				1							1
	Que. H.S.				3							3
	Que. I.S.		1									1
	Total		1		5	1	1	1				9
5	B.C.				1	1	18	9	3		1	33
	Alta.				2	5	7	2				16
	Sask.				2	1						3
	Man.				5	2		3				10
	Ont. C.I.				1	14	17	1				33
	Ont. H.S.				17	42	10					69
	Ont. C.S.			14	20	3	1					38
	Que. H.S.				2	2	1					5
	Que. I.S.	6	7	2	2		1				1	19
	N.B.								1			1
	P.E.I.		1									1
	N.S.		1		3							4
	Total	6	9	16	55	70	55	15	4		2	232

No. of Periods	Prov.	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	Total
4	B.C.				2	2	5	6		1		16
	Alta.						1			1		2
	Sask.					11						11
	Man.			1		3	6					10
	Ont. C.I.					7	9	1				17
	Ont. H.S.			1	4	20	7					32
	Ont. C.S.			48	45	4						97
	Que. H.S.										1	1
	Que. I.S.	2	2	1		1						6
	N.B.				1			3		1	1	6
	N.S.				2			1	1			4
	Total	2	2	51	54	48	28	11	1	3	2	202

3	B.C.				2				1			3
	Alta.						1					1
	Sask.				1	3	2	1				7
	Man.			2	3	5	7					17
	Ont. C.I.					1	4					5
	Ont. H.S.				2	2						4
	Ont. C.S.			8	1							9
	Que. I.S.			1	1							2
	N.B.				3		2	4	2	2	1	14
	P.E.I.	1			1		3	2				7
	N.S.					1	1	6	3		1	12
	Total	1	11	14	12	20	13	6	2	2	2	81

2	B.C.			1								1
	Man.					3						3
	Ont. C.S.				1							1
	N.B.		1		2			1	1	1	4	10
	P.E.I.	2			3						2	7
	N.S.				1			4	3		2	10
	Total	2	1	1	7	3		5	4	1	8	32

YEAR III.

7	B.C.				1			1				2
	Man.			2	1	2						5
	Ont. C.I.					2	4					6
	Ont. H.S.			1	1	6	1					9
	Ont. C.S.			4	4		1					9
	Que. H.S.			1	3							4
	Que. I.S.	1										1
	Total	1	8	10	10	6	1					36

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No. of Periods	Prov.	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	Total
6	B.C.						1	1				2
	Sask.					1						1
	Man.			1	1	1						3
	Ont. H.S.				3	8	1					12
	Ont. C.S.			20	27	1						48
	Que. H.S.				3	1	2					6
	Total			21	34	12	4	1				72
5	B.C.					1	2	16	6	2	1	28
	Alta.					1	1	4				6
	Sask.					2	9		1			12
	Man.					6	9	5	2			22
	Ont. C.I.					1	14	22	2			39
	Ont. H.S.					15	39	11				65
	Ont. C.S.			19	20	7						46
	Que. H.S.		1	5	8	2	2					18
	Que. I.S.	7	4	3	2						1	17
	N.B.					1		1				2
	N.S.		1		2							3
	Total	7	6	27	59	83	61	11	2	1	1	259
4	B.C.				1	1	1	2	5		1	12
	Alta.					1		3	2		1	7
	Sask.						3	2				5
	Man.						2	6				8
	Ont. C.I.						3	2				5
	Ont. H.S.						3	2				5
	Ont. C.S.			6	6							12
	Que. H.S.				1	2						3
	Que. I.S.	2	1									3
	N.B.					1		3		2	1	7
	N.S.					1	1	1	1			4
	Total	2	1	8	12	12	18	11	1	4	2	71
3	B.C.					1				1	1	3
	Alta.						1					1
	Sask.					1	1					2
	Man.						2					2
	Ont. C.I.							2				2
	Ont. H.S.					1	4	1				6
	Ont. C.S.				3	2						5
	Que. H.S.										1	1
	Que. I.S.					1						1
	N.B.					1		2	1	2	1	7
	N.S.		1		1	1		8	2	1		14
	Total		1	3	8	9	5	9	5	3	1	44

No. of Prov.

Periods	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	Total
2 B.C.....				1							1
Alta.....					1						1
Ont. H.S.....				1							1
N.B.....										3	3
P.E.I.....				3							3
N.S.....				1			1	3		1	6
Total.....				6	1		1	3		4	15

YEAR IV.

7 Ont. C.I.....				1							1
Ont. H.S.....				1	4	2					7
Ont. C.S.....				1							1
Que. H.S.....				3							3
Total.....				6	4	2					12

6 B.C.....						2	1				3
Man.....						1					1
Ont. C.I.....					5	6	1				12
Ont. H.S.....				3	14	5					22
Ont. C.S.....			3	1							4
Que. H.S.....			1	3							4
Total.....			4	7	19	14	2				46

5 B.C.....				1	1	18	9	3	1		33
Alta.....						1					1
Sask.....				2	10						12
Man.....				1	2	1	2				6
Ont. C.I.....						15	17	1			33
Ont. H.S.....				10	37	8					55
Ont. C.S.....			3	7	2						12
Que. H.S.....		1	4	7	2	4					18
Que. I.S.....			1	2							3
N.S.....							1				1
Total.....		1	8	30	69	49	13	3	1		174

4 B.C.....						1	1			1	3
Alta.....						2					2
Sask.....					3	1	1				5
Ont. C.I.....						1					1
Ont. H.S.....					1						1
Que. H.S.....			2	2							4
N.S.....						1					1
Total.....			2	2	4	6	2			1	17

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No. of Periods	Prov.	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	Total
3	Sask.....					1						1
	Man.....					1						1
	Ont. H.S.....				1							1
	Ont. C.S.....			2	2							4
	Que. H.S.....										1	1
	N.B.....									1		1
	N.S.....							3	1			4
	Total.....			2	3	2		3	1	1	1	13
2	Ont. C.I.....						1					1
	Ont. H.S.....					1						1
	Ont. C.S.....				3							3
	N.S.....							2	2			4
	Total.....				3	1	1	2	2			9

YEAR V.

7	Ont. C.I.....				3							3
	Ont. H.S.....				3	2	2					7
	Total.....				3	5	2					10
6	Ont. C.I.....				1	2	4	1				8
	Ont. H.S.....				2	10	3					15
	Total.....				3	12	7	1				23
5	Ont. C.I.....					14	20	1				35
	Ont. H.S.....				5	24	8					37
	Total.....				5	38	28	1				72
4	Ont. C.I.....					3	1					4
	Total.....					3	1					4

16. (a) AVERAGE WEEKLY TIME ALLOTTED TO CLASSES IN FRENCH, BY DISTRICTS AND YEARS OF STUDY, 1926.

	Year	I	II	III	IV			
	av.	No.	av.	No.	av.	No.		
		scho	scho	scho	scho	scho		
Ont. C.I. & H.S.	2h.44m.	159	2h.45m.	158	3h.05m.	154	3h.15m.	140
Ont. C.S.	1 57	149	1 57	148	2 30	118	2 19	25
West	2 56	133	2 57	139	3 12	126	3 12	16
East	1 54	77	1 58	68	2 16	49	2 08	14
Que. H.S.	2 26	34	2 31	33	2 26	33	2 35	30
Que. Int.	1 43	31	1 51	29	1 43	22		3
All Schools	2 22	583	2 23	573	2 46	507	2 57	247

Notes:—(i) The Fifth Year Course is offered only in Ontario, where 111 schools report, with an average of 3h. 19m. (ii) Saskatchewan Continuation Schools, 148 schools report, 1st year, average 1h. 34m; 3rd year, 2h. 4m.

16. (b) LENGTH OF PERIOD, AVERAGE, BY PROVINCES.

Alta.	38 min.	N.S.	40 min.	P.E.I.	33 min.
B.C.	48 "	Ont. C.I.	37 "	Que. H.S.	31 "
Man.	35 "	Ont. H.S.	35 "	Que. Int.	21 "
N.B.	44 "	Ont. Con.	28 "	Sask.	35 "
				Sask.	30 "

16. (c) TABLE SHOWING MEAN AND MODE FOR WEEKLY TIME ALLOTTED TO FRENCH AND LATIN, BY YEARS, ALL SCHOOLS.

	I		II		III		IV		V	
Year	Mean	Mode	Mean	Mode	Mean	Mode	Mean	Mode	Mean	Mode
French	2 h. 22	1 h. 45	2 h. 23	1 h. 45	2 h. 46	3 h.	2 h. 57	3 h.	3 h. 19	3 h.
Latin	2 h. 16	3 h.	2 h. 28	3 h.	2 h. 50	3 h.	3 h. 15	3 h.	3 h. 15	3 h. 15

The variation of teaching time in French, as between the different groups, seems to have some relation to the average size of classes. Thus there is a short allotment of time in Ontario and Saskatchewan continuation schools, the Maritime Provinces and Quebec intermediate schools, all of which include in the count a large number of country schools with small classes: while in the areas in which city schools figure, with their large classes, the time given is much longer.

17. SEX OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS, BY PROVINCES.

	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ont. H.S. & C.I.	Ont. C.S.	P.E.I.	Que.	Sask.	Sask.	Total
Men	9	32	17	35	34	58	38	12	27	10	95	367
Women	27	63	54	17	33	240	124	15	132	26	50	781
Total	36	95	71	52	67	298	162	27	159	36	145	1148
% of men	25	33.7	24	67.3	50.7	19.5	23.5	44.4	17	28	65.5	32

17 (a) SEX OF ALL SECONDARY TEACHERS IN SIX PROVINCES, A.S.E., 125.

	B.C.	N.B.	Ont. H.S. & C.I.	Ont. C.S.	P.E.I.	Que.	Sask.	Total
Men	237	90	779	112	36	155	131	1540
Women	141	89	875	284	36	394	85	1904
Total	378	179	1654	396	72	549	216	3444
% of men	62.7	50.3	47.1	28.3	50	28.2	60.6	44.7

The two preceding tables give definite data on a fact that is generally known, *viz*: that modern language teaching is largely done by women. While women have a majority in the secondary teaching corps of only two

provinces, Ontario and Quebec, yet men are in the majority among language teachers in only three provinces, Saskatchewan, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

18. DEGREES AND PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATES HELD BY TEACHERS OF MODERN LANGUAGES.

(i) Degrees

	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ont. H.S. & C.I.	Ont. C.S.	P.E.I.	Que. H.S.	Que. Int.	Sask. C.I. & H.S.	Sask. C.S.	Total
No. reported.	36	95	71	52	67	298	162	27	77	78	36	145	1144
B.A. Hon.	3	41	28	10	4	169	4	2	7	..	11	20	299
B.A. Pass.	16	44	27	4	27	80	14	3	26	6	19	46	312
M.A.	8	18	3	6	10	27	1	..	2	..	5	6	86
Other degrees	..	2	2	1	5	2	..	1	2	..	1	6	22

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATES HELD BY MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS, 1926. (See also chapter on teacher training.)

Alberta: academic 10; first class 21; others 6.

British Columbia: academic 75; others 7.

Manitoba: first class professional grade A and collegiate 62; others 7.

New Brunswick: grammar school license 16; superior 28; others 4.

Nova Scotia: academic 14; superior first class A 27; superior first class B 7; others 4.

Ontario H. S. & C. I.: specialists 140; high school assistants 146; others 3.

Ontario Continuation: high school assistants 19; first class 143.

Prince Edward Island: first class 17; second class 5; others 4.

Quebec: specialists 30; high school certificate 28; intermediate 63; elementary 31.

Saskatchewan H. S. & C. I.: collegiate 10; high school 11; first class 13; other 1.

Saskatchewan C. S.: high school assistants 50; first class 74; second class 8; others 4.

19. PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF TEACHERS HAVING 3, 6, etc. YEARS OF EXPERIENCE, BY PROVINCES, 1926.

Years	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ontario			Quebec		Sask.		Total	
						C.I.	H.S.	C.S.	P.E.I.	H.S.	Int.	C.I. & H.S.		C.S.
0-2.9	1	16	9	11	14	26	41	67	6	8	23	2	14	238
3-5.9	13	23	15	15	12	15	30	51	5	16	24	13	30	271
6-8.9	4	9	15	5	10	28	19	27	3	6	5	6	32	169
9-11.9	3	15	9	8	5	29	14	2	3	15	6	7	20	136
12-14.9	6	7	4	3	5	12	8	5	5	12	2	3	12	84
15-17.9	7	8	8	0	2	15	8	4	2	7	0	3	8	72
18-20.9	1	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	3	7	2	2	7	47
21-23.9	1	4	0	0	2	5	2	1	2	2	2	0	2	23
24-26.9	0	0	3	1	6	5	0	1	0	1	1	0	4	22
27-29.9	0	2	2	1	2	3	1	0	1	2	0	0	1	15
30--	0	5	1	4	2	15	2	0	0	2	1	0	1	33
Total.....	36	93	70	52	63	157	129	160	30	78	66	36	140	1110
Average.....	10	10.3	10.2	9.7	10.8	12.1	7.3	4.8	10.5	11.4	6.2	8.6	9.2	9.1

The mode indicates that in most of the educational systems of the Dominion, the largest group of teachers have been at work between 3 and 6 years. There are notable exceptions in Nova Scotia and the Ontario high and continuation schools, which have large groups of beginners, and in the Ontario collegiate institutes, where 29, or nearly 20%, of the language teachers have a record of about 10 years' experience. Average length of service varies little except in continuation and intermediate schools. The low average of 7.3 years for Ontario high schools is probably due to the transference of teachers to the collegiate institutes after a few years of service.

20. NUMBER OF TEACHERS GIVING 100%, 90%, etc. OF THEIR TIME TO MODERN LANGUAGES, BY PROVINCES, 1926.

% of time	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ontario			P.E.I.	Que.	Sask.	Total
						C.I.	H.S.	C.S.				
100	1	12	10	1	0	45	11	0	0	26	3	109
91-99	3	4	4	0	1	13	9	5	1	2	1	43
81-90	1	4	3	1	7	55	10	3	1	3	3	51
71-80	1	5	7	2	3	21	15	10	0	6	5	75
61-70	2	5	6	5	5	9	18	7	1	1	6	65
51-60	3	10	5	1	5	20	31	23	8	11	4	121
41-50	2	11	9	2	8	8	11	24	2	3	5	85
31-40	6	12	6	1	10	3	6	26	1	7	0	78
21-30	7	15	14	12	13	10	8	35	8	21	4	158
11-20	6	7	6	16	16	12	9	5	15	0	5	117
Total	32	85	70	41	64	153	124	148	22	127	36	902

Inspection of the first three lines reveals the degree of specialization obtaining in a given province. Thus in British Columbia nearly 15%, in Ontario collegiates about 30%, and in Quebec, 20% of the language teachers devote their whole time to the work, and all others giving over 70% of their time to language teaching may be regarded as specialists to some degree. The figures are only partially reliable, because a few teachers mentioned Latin in stating their hours and it is possible that others may have included it without saying so.

At the other extreme, the lower lines indicate the number of teachers who undertake language work only as a detail in their regular class curriculum. Expressed in percentages we have:

20 (a) PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS GIVING MORE THAN 70 OR LESS THAN 21% OF THEIR TIME TO MODERN LANGUAGES.

	Ontario											
	Alta.	B.C.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	C.I.	H.S.	C.S.	P.E.I.	Que.	Sask.	Total
70% and over	19	29	34	10	17	55	36	12	9	29	33	283
20% and under	19	8	9	39	19	6	4	10	68	28	14	224

Table 21 is important when read in relation to the chapter on teacher training. The classification by years falls naturally into three groups, which stand for three grades of language study.

(i) Teachers reporting 4 years or less have probably not gone beyond the high school course. (ii) Those reporting 5 and 6 years have taken one or two years of a university course. (iii) Those reporting 7 and 8 have in general 3 or 4 years of university work, but are not likely to have taken honours in the language. (iv) Those reporting 9 years or more have in most cases taken an honours course at the university, supplemented in many cases by graduate study.

Inspection of the table with this division in mind shows that over 21% of all persons teaching French in Canadian schools, exclusive of Quebec, have studied the language for 4 years or less; 55% have from 5 to 8 years, and 24% have 9 years or more.

Comparison of the total figures for the other languages show that: (i) about 70 teachers have no Latin, (ii) less than half have a knowledge of German, (iii) about one seventh have studied two or more years in Italian and Spanish. Of this last group most are in Ontario schools.

ITALIAN									
5-6	1				1	30	3	1	2
3-4					1	42	20	1	40
1-2	3	6	4	1	2	72	24	6	86
Total.....	4	7	5	1	3			7	128
SPANISH									
5-6						7			7
3-4	1	2	1		1	14	6		27
1-2	5	15	2		7	34	27	1	90
Total.....	6	17	3		8	55	33	4	133
LATIN									
13+		1							2
11-12		1							3
9-10	2	5	1		1	16	11		45
7-8	6	18	12		4	40	32	2	165
5-6	12	24	28	14	16	57	47	10	352
3-4	7	16	16	10	27	18	15	10	256
1-2	2	3	3	2	7	2	2	2	44
Total.....	29	68	61	35	57	133	108	44	867

French	Quebec		
	H.S.	Int.	Total
13 +	8	1	9
11-12	10	4	14
9-10	19	8	27
7-8	18	30	48
5-6	9	17	26
3-4	3	5	8
1-2		4	4
Total	67	69	136

Summarized by percentages, these tables give the following results:— (i.) Of 941 teachers reporting, 100% have studied French, 44% German, 14% Italian, 14% Spanish, and 92% Latin. (ii.) Of the numbers who have studied each language, the following percentages report having studied for the periods indicated:—

Years.....	1—4	5—6	7—8	9
French	22%	26%	30%	22%
German	48	22	21	9
Italian.....	98	2		
Spanish.....	95	5		
Latin.....	35	40	19	6

22. TRAVEL AND STUDY: NUMBER OF TEACHERS WHO HAVE (i) TRAVELLED, (ii) STUDIED, IN THE COUNTRY OF THE LANGUAGE TAUGHT, AND THE TIME SO SPENT.

Note:—Under Que. are listed those reporting study in the Province of Quebec.

Months	Alta. & B.C.			Man. & Sask.			Ontario			Que.		Maritime Provinces			Totals	
	T.	S.	Q.	T.	S.	Q.	T.	S.	Q.	T.	S.	T.	S.	Q.	T.	S.
1-3	8	4	1	17	3	2	56	17	13	15	8	8	2		104	32
4-6	6	7	1	4	4	2	6	7	2	3					19	18
7-12	8	9		4	7	3	1	2	1	3	1	1			17	19
12	12	11	2	9	2	1	3	6	1	3	4	4	5	3	31	28
Total.....	34	31	4	34	16	8	66	32	17	24	11	13	7	3	171	97
Total sampled..	131			107			460			159		136			993	

The totals for this table should be compared, not with the total number of teachers reporting, nearly half of whom have no special interest in language work, but with the upper group of more or less specialized instructors. It appears then that against a total of 278 teachers giving over 70% of their time to language teaching, there is a

record of travel by 171, and of study abroad or in Quebec by 129. It is not known, though highly probable, that the two classifications (the 70% teachers and the traveller-students) comprise the same individuals, but it can be estimated, with some confidence, that nearly half the teachers specializing in this work have studied in the country of the language taught.

23. DIRECT METHOD: NUMBER OF TEACHERS WHO CONSIDER THEMSELVES QUALIFIED TO USE THE DIRECT METHOD, BY LANGUAGES.

	Alta. & B.C.	Man. & Sask.	Ontario	Que.	Maritime Provinces	Totals
French.....	97	83	249	108	53	590
German.....	17	24	95	2	8	146
Italian.....	3	2	1	1	1	8
Spanish.....	1	3	14	1	3	22
Total						
Sampled.	131	107	460	159	136	

This table does not tally with the observations made in visiting class-rooms.

24. TEACHERS' TIME-TABLES: TEACHING PERIODS PER WEEK, AVERAGE AND MODE, BY PROVINCES.

Province	Average	Mode			
Alta.....	25h.	40 periods of 40 minutes			
B.C.....	23h. 20 min.	35	"	45	"
Man.....	23h.	36	"	40	"
N.B.....	23h. 40 min.	25	"	60	"
N.S.....	22h.	50	"	30	"
		25	"	45	"
Ont. C.I.....	23h. 30 min.	38	"	40	"
Ont. H.S.....	24h. 20 min.	45	"	35	"
		40	"	40	"
Ont. C. S.....	26h. 5 min.	55	"	28	"
P.E.I.....		40	"	30	"
Que.....		30	"	45	"
Sask. C.I. & H.S.....	22 h. 20 min.	45	"	30	"

Note:—No average is given for Prince Edward Island and Quebec, because returns are confused by partial figures given by teachers who are apparently doing both Primary and Secondary work in the same school.

The teaching week varies an hour or two on each side of 25 hours, or 5 hours a day. In New Brunswick the 60 minute period is frequently found.

25. SIZE OF CLASSES: AVERAGE NUMBER AND MAXIMUM NUMBER OF PUPILS IN MODERN LANGUAGE CLASSES.

LEGEND—Twelve teachers in Alberta report that their classes average 21-40 pupils. Thirteen teachers in Alberta have 31-40 pupils in their largest class.

Average class.			Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ontario		P.E.I.	Quebec		Sask.	Total
Aver.	Alta.	B.C.				C.I.	H.S.		H.S.	Int.		
50-					6							6
41-50	3		14	5	8	12			1		4	47
31-40	8	9	22	11	8	91	13	3	14		10	190
21-30	12	37	9	3	11	38	75	10	3	30	8	236
01-20	9	21		10	14	6	28	04	13		5	213
1-10		9		15	10		35	8	6	16		98

Largest class.			Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ontario		P.E.I.	Quebec		Sask.	Total
Aver.	Alta.	B.C.				C.I.	H.S.		H.S.	Int.		
50-	2		3		12	4	3		2		1	27
41-50	6	16	33	10	9	72	21	2	6		13	188
31-40	13	44	14	7	10	68	53	11	30		8	259
21-30	7	15	9	5	14	10	43	40	3	20	2	168
11-20	1	10	11	13	12	1	2	82	8	8	1	157
1-10		7	2	10	6		20	6	4	14		69

Returns in these two tables are not entirely reliable. The questions were misunderstood by a number of respondents, who seem to have read "largest class" in terms of individual weight rather than of numerical totality, but after rejecting doubtful replies, the results may probably be taken as giving a general picture of conditions.

It will be noted that the size of classes increases in areas where the tabulation includes a number of large urban schools, and decreases in provinces and groups of schools where the units are predominantly rural. In 311 schools the average language class is less than 21 and in 226 no language class exceeds 20. Inspection of the table will show how these figures vary in different provinces.

IV. PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Number of schools reporting—52.

26. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OFFERING 1, 2, 3, etc. YEARS OF INSTRUCTION IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN, 1927.

Years	Preparatory Forms							High School Forms				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	4	4	9	4	4	6		1	8	19	15
German	2				1			3	4	5	16	1
Spanish	1							3		2		1
Latin	6	10	3	1					1	7	20	12

27. NUMBER OF PUPILS IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS TAKING MODERN LANGUAGES AND LATIN.

Years	Preparatory Forms.							High School Forms.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total	1	2	3	4	5	Total
French.	429	417	351	242	71	8	1518	889	876	906	629	221	3521
German.	10						10	145	86	94	41		366
Spanish.								33	18	9			60
Latin	262	273	57	33			625	757	727	674	472	117	2747

Italian, 2 in 1st year; Icelandic, 15, mostly in 2nd and 3rd years.

28. NUMBER AND DURATION OF PERIODS GIVEN TO FRENCH, GERMAN, AND LATIN IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY SCHOOL YEARS.

Year	Periods per week.							Length of period, minutes.			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10-20	30-35	40-45	50-60
FRENCH.											
<i>Preparatory Forms</i>											
1	2	2	8	3	4			3	15	9	
2	2	7	8	4	6			3	15	9	
3		6	8	8	3			3	16	7	
4		3	7	5	1			2	11	4	
5		1	6	3	1			1	8	3	
<i>High School Forms</i>											
1		2	11	12	8	2			17	16	2
2		1	11	12	8	3			15	18	2
3			9	9	12	3	1		16	18	1
4			3	7	12	5	1		14	14	
5			1		7	2			5	4	
GERMAN											
<i>Preparatory Forms</i>											
1											
2			1	1	1				1	2	
3				2		1			1	2	
4				2		1			1	2	
5				1					1	1	
<i>High School Forms</i>											
1			7	5	4	1			9	10	
2			5	6	2	1			6	9	
3			3	4	2	2			7	6	
4			1	3	3	1			3	6	
5				1	1				1		
LATIN											
<i>Preparatory Forms</i>											
1		3	6	3	1				6	6	
2		3	3	2	4				5	6	
3				1	3				1	3	
4					1				1		
5							1				

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High School Forms

1	3	9	8	8	3	17	14	2	
2	1	10	11	8	2	13	16	3	
3		5	9	12	3	1	13	15	3
4		2	4	12	5	2	11	13	1
5		1		8	1	1	3	6	

29.

STAFF

71 teachers report.....22 men and 49 women

Degrees	Professional Certificates
B.A. .36; M.A. .4; other degrees..... 4	Provincial.....9
Honours in modern languages.....16	British..... 3
	French..... 1

Experience	Country of Birth	Country of Secondary Education
0- 2.9 years..... 5	Canada.....21	Canada.....25
3- 5.9 "10	England.....14	England.....12
6- 8.9 " 8	France..... 9	France.....10
9-11.9 " 7	United States..... 5	United States..... 4
12-14.9 " 5	Germany..... 3	Germany..... 3
15-17.9 " 4	Belgium..... 1	Switzerland..... 3
18-20.9 " 7	Russia..... 1	Russia..... 1
21-23.9 " 3	Switzerland..... 1	
24 "11		

30. NUMBER OF TEACHERS WHO HAVE STUDIED IN THE COUNTRY OF LANGUAGE TAUGHT.

Country.....	3 mos.	6 mos.	1 yr.	2 yrs.	3 yrs.	10 yrs.
France.....	2	5	4	3	5	
Germany.....	2	3	4	2	1	1
Quebec.....	2	1			2	

V. UNIVERSITIES

31. REGISTRATION IN FRENCH AND GERMAN BY ACADEMIC YEARS.

Six Universities gave complete or partial returns of enrolment by student years. These have been totalled to show approximately the proportion of students continuing their languages beyond the first year. The large enrolment in the First Year is due in part to the requirements, in some institutions, for a pre-science or pre-medical year in Arts.

Year	I		II		III		IV	
	F.	G.	F.	G.	F.	G.	F.	G.
1905.....	200	189	140	123	55	54	49	45
1911.....	576	401	402	261	167	129	133	113
1914.....	656	397	451	325	227	161	185	120
1916.....	562	263	392	210	206	113	144	86
1921.....	1623	237	896	91	357	52	228	479
1926.....	1636	467	1215	253	503	58	445	49

31. (a) THE SAME: ENROLMENT IN SECOND AND LATER YEARS AS PERCENTAGE OF ENROLMENT IN FIRST YEAR.

	II % of I		III % of I		IV % of I	
	F.	G.	F.	G.	F.	G.
1905	70	65.1	27.5	28.6	24.5	23.8
1911.....	69.8	65.1	29	32.2	23.1	28.2
1914.....	68.8	81.9	34.6	40.6	28.2	30.2
1916.....	69.8	79.8	36.7	43	25.6	32.7
1921.....	55.2	38.4	22	21.9	14.0	19.8
1926.....	74.3	54.2	30.7	12.4	27.2	10.5

32. ACADIA UNIVERSITY. REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES, AND IN LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

Year	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Latin	Total in Arts
1905 ..						128
1911 ..	88	44	0	0	87	167
1914 ..	99	30	0	11	109	170
1916 ..	105	21	6	9	96	167
1921 ..	150	56	19	6	125	230
1926 ..	189	93	4	27	170	202

32. (a) ACADIA UNIVERSITY. REGISTRATION BY STUDENT YEARS IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

Year	I			II			III			IV		
	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.
1911 ..	35	32	44	34	12	33	19	0	10	0	0	0
1914 ..	30	9	37	37	15	39	24	6	27	8	0	6
1916 ..	30	10	36	27	4	29	29	5	20	19	2	11
1921 ..	61	27	45	45	17	31	25	10	25	19	2	24
1926 ..	78	58	52	67	20	49	31	10	45	13	5	24

33. UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA. REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
French.....	698	741	823	683	766	855	905	945
German.....	35	29	30	49	68	87	88	151
Spanish.....	50	160	173					
Latin.....	248	184	218	198	194	206	218	292
Total in Arts.....	681	696	724	890	969	1119	1124	

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33 (a) UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA. REGISTRATION BY STUDENT YEARS IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

Year	I		II				III, IV and Grads.			
	F.	L.	F.	G.*	S.	L.	F.	G.	S.	L.
1920....	462	170	150	33	50	60	86	2	..	18
1921....	435	100	200	27	140	45	106	2	20	39
1922....	450	131	230	24	54	47	143	6	119	40
1923....	380	125	161	47	..	34	142	2	..	39
1924....	460	135	160	64	..	35	146	4	..	24
1925....	460	128	180	74	..	48	215	13	..	30
1926....	450	120	210	74	..	51	245	14	..	47
1927....	500	165	210	136	..	64	235	15	..	63

*Figures for German are given for Years I and II together.

34. UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA. REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES, AND IN LATIN, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1905	1911	1914	1916	1921	1926
French.....	114	176	241	274	500	613
German.....	70	78	98	81	35	147
Latin.....	169	243	280	263	187	388
Total in Arts.....	250	369	459	525	790	1489

34 (a) THE SAME, EXPRESSED AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL REGISTRATION IN ARTS.

	1905	1911	1914	1916	1921	1926
French.....	45.6	47.7	52.5	52.2	63.3	41.2
German.....	28	21.1	21.4	15.4	4.4	9.9
Latin.....	67.6	65.9	61	50.1	23.7	26.1

34 (b) UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA. REGISTRATION BY STUDENT YEARS FOR CALENDAR YEARS GIVEN.

Year	I				II				III				IV			
	F.	G.	L.	Total	F.	G.	L.	Total	F.	G.	L.	Total	F.	G.	L.	Total
1905....	58	34	86	86	38	19	66	69	10	8	10	51	8	9	7	44
1911....	102	38	136	137	53	21	83	83	11	10	13	76	10	9	11	73
1914....	138	42	164	178	65	33	106	109	24	12	4	92	14	11	6	80
1916....	182	36	154	216	60	26	94	112	17	11	8	110	15	8	7	87
1921....	339	18	135	436	132	9	41	196	22	5	4	82	7	3	7	76
1926....	294	96*	194	579	238	41	134	467	52	6	38	238	29	4	22	205

34 (c) THE SAME AS APPROXIMATE PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL REGISTRATION IN EACH STUDENT YEAR.

Year	I			II			III			IV		
	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.
1905..	67	40	100	55	28	96	20	16	20	18	20	16
1911..	74	28	99	64	25	100	15	13	17	14	12	15
1914..	78	24	92	60	30	97	26	13	4	18	14	8
1916..	84	17	71	54	23	84	15	10	7	17	9	8
1921..	78	4	31	67	5	21	27	6	5	9	4	9
1926..	51	17*	34	51	9	29	22	3	16	14	2	11

*Increase in German due to the fact that it is regularly taken by all pre-medical students.

34 (d) GRADUATE STUDENTS IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND CLASSICS.

Year	Total Graduate Registration	French	German	Classics
1916.....	17	1	1	..
1921.....	26	1	..	4
1926.....	78	2	..	2

35. UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO. TOTAL REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1905	1911	1914	1916	1921	1926
French.....	23	27	33	47	101	325
German.....	19	22	29	29	25	128
Italian.....	5	2	1	..	10	12
Spanish.....	57	49
Latin.....	26	33	40	37	72	221
Total Registration in Arts.....	43	71	74	79	319	720

35 (a) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL REGISTRATION IN ARTS.

	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Latin
1905....	53.5	44.2	11.6	..	60.5
1911....	38	31	2.8	..	46.5
1914....	44.6	39.2	1.4	..	54.1
1916....	59.5	36.7	46.8
1921....	31.7	7.8	3.1	17.9	22.6
1926....	45.1	17.8	1.7	6.8	30.7

35 (b) REGISTRATION BY STUDENT YEARS.

	I						II					
	F.	G.	L.	S.	L.	Total	F.	G.	L.	S.	L.	Total
1905....	4	2	1		9	13	9	6	3		9	13
1911....	12	11	1		21	34	5	4	1		10	11
1914....	12	10	1		13	23	10	8			19	23
1916....	13	7			13	19	19	8			16	29
1921....	56	12	9	38	46	73	20	6		16	21	65
1926....	114	88	12	27	110	208	134	21		13	101	168

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	III						IV					
	F.	G.	I.	Sp.	L.	Total	F.	G.	I.	Sp.	L.	Total
1905....	8	8	1		6	11	2	3			2	6
1911....	5	3			1	12	5	4			1	14
1914....	6	7			7	16	5	4			1	12
1916....	10	7			3	11	5	7			5	20
1921....	15	6		3	5	39	10	1	1	0	0	18
1926....	47	10		4	5	88	30	9		5	5	74

35 (c) THE SAME, AS PERCENTAGES OF REGISTRATION IN EACH STUDENT YEAR.

	I	II	III	IV	Total
French					
1905....	30.8	69.2	72.7	3.3	53.5
1911....	35.3	45.6	41.7	35.7	38.0
1914....	52.2	43.4	37.5	41.7	44.6
1916....	68.4	65.5	90.9	25	59.5
1921....	76.7	30.8	38.5	55.6	31.7
1926....	54.8	79.8	53.4	40.5	45.1
German					
1905....	15.4	46.2	72.7	50	44.2
1911....	32.4	36.4	25	28.6	31
1914....	43.5	34.8	43.8	33.3	39.2
1916....	36.8	27.6	63.6	35	36.7
1921....	16.4	9.2	15.4	5.6	7.8
1926....	42.3	12.5	11.4	12.2	17.8
Italian					
1905....	7.7	23.1	9.1	0	11.6
1911....	2.9	9.1	0	0	2.8
1914....	4.3	0	0	0	1.4
1916....	0	0	0	0	0
1921....	12.3	0	0	5.6	3.1
1926....	5.8	0	0	0	1.7
Latin					
1905....	69.2	69.2	54.5	3.3	60.5
1911....	61.8	90.9	8.5	7.1	46.5
1914....	56.5	82.6	43.8	8.3	54.1
1916....	68.4	55.2	27.3	25	46.8
1921....	63	32.3	12.8	0	20.6
1926....	52.9	60.1	5.7	6.8	30.7
Spanish					
1905....	0	0	0	0	0
1921....	52.1	24.6	7.7	0	17.9
1926....	13	7.7	4.5	6.8	6.8

36. UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO. REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1905*	1911	1916	1921	1926
French.....	317	964	790	1224	1385
German.....	324	749	509	243	205
Italian.....	92	176	142	39	42
Spanish.....	53	103	39	344	246
Latin.....	336	992	755	719	725
Total in Arts.....	662	1530	1504	1907	2227

36 (a) REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES AS PERCENTAGES OF REGISTRATION IN ARTS FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Latin
1905*..	*47.9	*49	13.9	8.0	*50.8
1911...	63.0	49	11.5	6.7	64.8
1916...	52.6	33.8	9.4	2.6	50.2
1921...	64.2	12.7	2.0	18.0	37.7
1926...	62.2	9.2	1.9	11.0	32.6

*Figures for 1905 refer to University College only, except for Italian and Spanish.

36 (b) REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN BY STUDENT YEARS.

	I					II					III					IV				
	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.
1905*	148	155	52	29	182	93	98	30	16	92	37	38	6	6	38	39	33	4	2	24
1911	418	319	91	59	471	296	215	49	26	284	132	115	20	13	139	118	100	16	5	98
1916	305	194	64	26	523	247	164	50	2	172	141	86	17	8	42	97	65	11	3	18
1921	618	140	16	221	535	345	41	19	90	128	147	26	2	24	29	114	36	2	9	27
1926	516	89	25	126	424	405	71	7	52	191	232	22	7	38	46	232	23	3	30	64

*Figures for 1905 refer to University College only except for Italian and Spanish.

36 (c) REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN AS PERCENTAGES OF REGISTRATION IN EACH STUDENT YEAR.

	I					II					III					IV				
	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.	F.	G.	I.	S.	L.
1911	79	60	17	11	89	73	53	12	6	70	43	37	6	4	45	41	35	6	2	34
1916	57	36	12	5	97	70	46	14	1	49	44	27	5	3	13	33	22	4	1	5
1921	81	18	2	29	70	67	8	4	17	25	44	8	1	7	9	39	12	1	3	9
1926	70	12	3	17	58	70	12	1	9	33	51	5	2	8	10	51	5	1	7	14

36 (d) GRADUATE STUDENTS IN ROMANCE LANGUAGES, IN GERMAN AND IN LATIN.

	Romance	German	Classics
1911.....			
1916.....	5	0	7
1921.....	9	1	6
1926.....	17	1	13
1927.....	18	1	8

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37. UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA. REGISTRATION IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1911	1916	1921	1926
French.....	46	191*	303	340
German.....	21	35	35	80
Latin.....	42	107	238	202
Total in Arts.....	68	184	560	659

*Includes graduate and applied science students.

37 (a) GRADUATE STUDENTS. French 1916—3; 1921—4; 1926—5
German 1911—1

38. UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN. NUMBER OF STUDENTS REGISTERED IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND IN LATIN FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1911	1914	1916	1921	1926
French.....	23	92	88	240	383
German.....	11	29	32	40	83
Latin.....	48	133	43	135	161
Total in Arts.....	108	233	151	407	563

38 (a) REGISTRATION IN FRENCH, GERMAN AND LATIN BY STUDENT YEARS.

Year	I			II			III & IV		
	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.	F.	G.	L.
1911.....	9	1	42	14	9	6	0	1	0
1914.....	35	11	83	23	13	49	34	5	1
1916.....	32	16	36	39	8	5	17	8	2
1921.....	99	28	121	97	6	8	44	4	6
1926.....	134	68	91	161	12	61	88	3	9

39. UNIVERSITY OF ST. FRANCIS XAVIER'S COLLEGE. REGISTRATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES, FOR YEARS GIVEN.

	1905	1911	1914	1916	1921	1926
French.....	74	170	136	154	127	133
German.....	11	6	10	17	13	12
Italian.....					4	8
Total in Arts.....	150	251	208	220	197	234

CONDITIONS AND PRACTICE

In the following pages will be found a summary of the results obtained by the high school and selected teachers' questionnaires, and by class-room observation. The intention is to give a brief statement of the conditions obtaining in Canada as a whole and in each province, and to that end the official syllabi have been added; further information will be found in the statistical tables and the chapter on examinations. The present chapter does not deal with the results of achievement tests, and conditions in the province of Quebec are discussed elsewhere.

For purposes of reference, the notes on each province have been grouped as follows:—I. The schools: language courses, enrolment, time-table, equipment. II. The teachers: numbers and sex, degrees and certificates, experience, specialization, direction of modern language study. III. The syllabus, observations on the texts. IV. Class-room observation and teachers' opinions. A preliminary section presents the figures as totalled for the Dominion. Enrolment in Latin has been given throughout for comparative purposes.

I. THE SCHOOLS

A questionnaire addressed, in the early months of the session of 1925-26, to 815 publicly controlled schools was returned, completely or partially answered, by 640, or 78.5%.

Language courses; table 12¹

French is taught in 638 schools, the length of the course being 2 years in 64 cases, 3 years in 263, 4 years in 181, and 5 years in 123 cases. Seven schools return only 1 year, but this is due in nearly all cases to local conditions. There are also some hundreds of rural public schools where one or two years of secondary instruction are given and French has a place in the curriculum of probably 50% of these, but the present enquiry takes no account of the work done in these institutions.

German is taught in 87 schools, of which 26 give 1 or 2 years, 34 give 3, and 27 add a fourth.

Latin forms part of the curriculum in 597 schools, the length of the course corresponding roughly to that in French.

Spanish is limited to 7 schools in Ontario which offer a 4-year course, but the tendency is to centralize it in a very few city schools. The language has recently (1927) been included in the programme for Nova Scotian high schools.

One or two schools have given a course in Italian, but this is to be discontinued.

Enrolment; table 13

The questionnaire sampled a total of over 107,000 secondary school pupils, but this should probably be increased by about 5000 to include the continuation schools of Saskatchewan, which did not make usable returns for secondary enrolment. Registration amounts to nearly 94,000 in French, 2500 in German and 70,000 in Latin. Totals by high school years in French are:— I. 38,000; II. 27,000; III. 18,000; IV. 8,000; V. 2,600.

¹For tables see chapter on statistics.

Time-table; table 16

The organization of the school time-table shows great variation from province to province and in some cases within the provinces. Periods range in length from 15 to 60 and even 75 minutes, and in number from 2 to 6 per week, but 5 periods of 35 minutes is probably the weekly norm for city schools, with a tendency to increase the number of periods in the senior years. In the smaller high schools and continuation schools periods are usually shorter and less frequent, but it must be remembered that classes are smaller.

Equipment

Libraries of books in French or German are reported by 326 schools, but 200 of these have less than 50 volumes, and many of those making returns of 100 or more have included sets of 30 to 50 copies of the same text, used for distribution in class and rarely available for lending to pupils. Phonographs are an item in the general equipment of over 100 schools, but only 26 have records in French and 3 in other languages. Phonetic charts and wall pictures are occasionally met with, especially in Quebec and British Columbia. *Realia* are likely to be commoner in schools where teachers have a fixed room and pupils move about. Unfortunately no data have been secured on this detail of school organization, which, for some teachers, may seriously modify the methods they employ.

II. THE TEACHERS

Sex; table 17

Of 1148 teachers of modern languages, 367, or 32% are men. Six provinces give departmental figures on the division of all secondary teachers by sex, showing that 44.7% are men.

Degrees; table 18

University degrees are held by 719 teachers, of whom 299 have the pass B.A. and 312 the honour B.A. but not necessarily in modern languages: 108 report the master's or other degree. About 425 have no degree.

Experience; table 19

An average length of service of 9.1 years is reported by 1110 teachers; of these 238 are in their first 3 years of the work, and 271 in the second 3 years. About 73% have less than 12 years service, and nearly 100, or about 9%, have more than 20.

Specialization; table 20

Information is not always reliable as to the proportion of teaching time given by individuals to modern language work, since confusion arose in many cases as to the classification of English and Latin. Such replies were of course rejected but it is probable that some of the respondents have made the same mistake without giving details. The figures as they stand indicate that 109 teachers, out of 902 making usable returns, give full time to modern language work, 283 give 70% or more of their time, and 224 not more than 20%. The last group, about 25% of the whole, probably indicates the number teaching French to one class only.

Duration of modern language study; tables 21, 22

Of 941 teachers reporting for French, 204 have studied the language for 4 years or less, that is to say, up to junior matriculation in Ontario, or senior in other provinces except Quebec, which is not included in this tabulation owing to the impossibility of distinguishing primary

from secondary years in the figures given. The mode of the distribution, 283 cases at 7-8 years, indicates the number of teachers who have taken 3 or 4 years of the language at a university. Another large group, 246, report 5-6 years, or 1-2 years in university courses. A smaller number, 148, are credited with 9-10 years; these include many of the Ontario specialists, and others who have honour degrees in modern languages. Above 10 years, indicating as a rule some sort of graduate study, are found 60 cases.

In German the mode is 3-4 years, with 108 out of 413 cases: 90 have 1-2 years, 92 claim 5-6, and 87 the equivalent of a full school and university course; but in interpreting the statistics for this language it must be recalled that the school instruction is always 1 year and sometimes 2 years shorter than that in French or Latin. More than 8 years work is reported by 36 teachers.

Italian and Spanish have been studied by 128 and 133 teachers respectively, and in most cases the individual has done work in both languages. The mode is in both cases 1-2 years with 86 cases in Italian and 99 in Spanish. Since very few teachers have had the opportunity of electing these languages at school, a return of 4 years means a full university course, so that considerable significance attaches to the fact that 42 teachers have done 3 or more years in Italian, and 34 the same in Spanish. Many of these belong to classes in the University of Toronto prior to about 1912.

Comparing the figures for Latin, 867, with those for French, it is clear that a considerable group of teachers have not studied the older language. In the distribution the mode is 5-6 years with 352 cases, and there are 300 cases in the interval 1-4 years.

School and university courses have been supplemented by travel and foreign study in the case of a considerable

number of teachers. Foreign travel ranging from a couple of months to a year or more is reported by 171 teachers; 97 have studied at European centres of instruction and 32 in the province of Quebec. The equivalent of a winter session at a foreign university is credited to 47 persons, while 50 appear to have attended summer courses for a total of 1 to 6 months.

PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT

The following questions were included in the high school questionnaire and answered as indicated below:—

1. Do all teachers in your school work under automatic service increase plan? Yes, 107. No, 471. The affirmative were mainly from Ontario collegiate institutes, Quebec high schools, and from the west.
2. If not, do modern language teachers receive as high a salary (other things being equal) as those teaching other subjects? Yes, 368. No, 51.
3. If not, which subjects are better paid? Replies indicate that science (21 cases), mathematics (19) and Latin (6) are better paid. Commerce, agriculture and English are mentioned once or twice each. Of 51 cases cited in this connexion 44 are in Ontario.
4. Do men in your school receive on the average a higher salary than women? Yes, 324. No, 99.
5. If so, is this due to longer average teaching experience? Yes, 83. No, 231.
6. Is any pressure exerted to influence modern language teachers to attend summer sessions at the university? Yes, 56. No, 489.
7. Is any pressure exerted to influence modern language teachers to travel or study abroad? Yes, 20. No, 521.
8. Does special additional study or travel entitle the teachers to a higher salary? Yes, 60. No, 477. Many of

those answering "yes" are from Quebec schools, where specialist standing earns a special school grant from the provincial authorities.

9. Is leave of absence with part pay possible for purposes of study or travel? Yes, 17. No, 538. Schools answering "yes" are mainly city schools in Alberta, Quebec and Ontario. Two cases are cited.

III. THE SYLLABUS

A comparative study of provincial syllabi is possible only when a satisfactory method of measuring text-book difficulty has been agreed upon. But the tabulation of requirements in the matter of yearly grammar study shows considerable differences between provinces. Omitting British Columbia and Quebec for reasons which will be obvious on inspection of their programmes, the provinces make prescriptions or recommendations as follows:—

GRAMMAR STUDY PRESCRIBED BY YEARS.

LEGEND—HSFG—High School French Grammar; NFS—The New Elementary Fraser and Squair; NCFS—The New Complete Fraser and Squair. The figures following the initials show the number of exercises prescribed or recommended to be covered in the years indicated.

Year	Alta.	Man.	N.B.	N.S.	Ont.	P.E.I.	Sask.
I	NFS 1-22	NFS 1-12	NFS 1-29	HSFG 1-25	HSFG	HSFG 1-29	HSFG 1-20
II	22-39	13-24	30-end	26-51	1-30*	30-41	21-35
III	NCFS	1-39	review	52-83		1-76	1-52
IV		NCFS		all	1-52**	all	all
V					all		

*Prescription for first two years.

**The customary amount, but not officially stated.

ALBERTA

I. THE SCHOOLS

Language Courses

The high school questionnaire yielded a return of 22 out of 31 schools addressed. French is taught in 21 of

these, Latin in 18 and German in one. The normal length of the course is 3 years, but 6 schools give less in French and 7 in Latin. A fourth year is offered by 3 schools in French and 1 in Latin.

Enrolment

The total number of pupils sampled by the questionnaire amounted to 5359, of whom 63% are taking French, and 24% Latin; and enrolment in German comprises 16 pupils. The survival figures show that 54% reach the second year in French and 16% the third: 2% are listed in the fourth. These are the lowest survival percentages in Canada and are the result of the unit system recently introduced by which matriculation credit may be secured on the basis of 2 or 3 years of instruction. Further information on this may be found in the chapter on examinations. In Latin 40 out of 100 beginners proceed to the second year, 13 to the third and a fraction over 3 reach the fourth. Statistics compiled by the department of education show that the enrolment in French by school years is a fairly constant percentage of the total number of pupils in each year.

Time-table

The unit system prescribes intensive work; French is studied by the majority of the pupils during two of the three high school years, so that it is not surprising to find that all schools except 3 give 5 periods a week in the first and second years of instruction in the language. Of the exceptions, 1 gives 7 periods and 2 give only 3. The length of the period is, in 15 out of the 20 cases, from 35 to 45 minutes.

The usual teaching week averages 25 hours and classes are of reasonable size, the average being given as less than 30 by 21 teachers and over 30 by 11.

Equipment

Seven schools have a few books in French and 1 reports as many as 140, with 30 in German; 3 schools subscribe to French periodicals; phonographs are found in a few institutions but do not appear to be used for the teaching of languages.

II. THE TEACHERS

Of the 36 teachers making returns, 9 are men.

Degrees and Certificates

Pass B.A. degrees are held by 16, honour or M.A. by 11; 10 teachers have the academic certificate, 21 the first class, and 6 others have various qualifications, including 3 from Ontario and 1 from England.

Experience

The average length of service for 36 teachers is 10 years; 13 report from 3 to 5 years; and the same number have from 12 to 20. Only 1 has less than 3 years and none have more than 24.

Specialization

One teacher gives full time to modern languages, 5 others give more than 70 per cent. and 13 report 30 per cent. or less.

Duration of modern language study

The average periods of study in the respective languages are:—French, 37 cases, 7.8 years; German, 16 cases, 4.8 years; Latin, 29 cases, 5.5 years; Spanish and Italian are reported by 6 and 4 teachers respectively, with about 2 years' study. Most of the teachers have taken French as a university subject; only 4 cases give less than 5 years, and 13 put down more than 8. In German 10 have 4

years or less, and 6 have 7 years or more. In Latin 9 have less than 5 years.

Foreign study has been undertaken by 14 teachers, or more than one third of those engaged in language work; 5 of these record 6 months or less, while 9 have 7 months or more. Two teachers have a French *diplôme* or *brevet*, and 1 has taken the master's degree at Columbia University with a special certificate for the teaching of French.

Origin and secondary education

One teacher claims French as her mother tongue, 1 is bilingual in English and French, and 1 in English and Gaelic; 7 were educated in Great Britain, 2 in the United States, and 1 in France.

III. THE SYLLABUS

High school studies in Alberta are organized on the basis of "units" which are defined as the amount of material the average pupil can prepare effectively in from 175 to 200 minutes per week during the school year. As a rule the unit is completed within the limits of the school year, but sometimes a unit in Latin may be spread over two years by reducing the number of weekly periods. The two units of a modern language required for junior matriculation are usually placed in the first three years of the high school course, and local school authorities are allowed considerable latitude as to the time at which the work is to be taken. A very important regulation directs that promotion is to be made by subjects, and the right to promotion to be determined by success at departmental examinations. This should result in better classification and go far to make up for the difference of teaching time as compared with other matriculation programmes. Provincial examinations are held yearly for each unit in

all subjects of the high school course, and are open to all candidates, whether trained in the high schools of the province or not.

The *Handbook for Secondary Schools*, besides setting forth in detail the prescription for each unit in the various subjects, contains a statement of the values and objectives of the studies that go to make up the course of secondary education. The section dealing with the languages, ancient and modern, faces the fundamental problem of "surrender value".

"Finally, it is desirable to offer high school courses in Latin and Greek that will do more than attempt merely to lay a foundation for university work. It is highly desirable that such courses be complete in themselves so that they may not only have a vocational and instrumental value for the select few, but a linguistic and cultural value as well for the greater part of our high school students".¹ It is clearly implied also that the Alberta system recognizes the same problem in its bearings on modern language study.

Reasons for the study of modern languages and the methods employed in the province are discussed in the introduction to the syllabus.²

"The war has demonstrated the interdependence of nations, and the need for a more intimate acquaintance, in this country, with the history, policies, and ideals of the leading European peoples. A knowledge of the language of a country makes possible a much more complete and more accurate interpretation of the political, social, industrial and scientific developments in that land. The extensive use of French and German in this country gives further evidence of the value of these languages from the

¹Handbook for secondary schools: Alberta: 1927. p. 72.

²*Op. cit.* pp. 79, 80.

point of view of our own national unity. For a more limited group, a mastery of languages is a pre-requisite to historical and scientific research.

"The intellectual values of the study of modern languages are those claimed as true for the classics.

"For the past three years we have been using a modified form of the direct method of teaching French in the larger schools of Alberta. Although this method has certain theoretical advantages, the results produced have been on the whole disappointing. This may be traced to four or five factors, none of which are entirely under the control of educational authorities—

"1. For efficient use of the direct method, the class should not exceed twenty pupils, but economic conditions have thus far made this ideal unattainable.

"2. Fluency in speaking French or German can be acquired only by constant oral practice in the language, and by living in an environment which supplements the school-room training. For the great majority of our pupils, such an atmosphere is entirely lacking. Even though an enthusiastic teacher might secure fairly adequate results with a pupil during his high school course, the lack of opportunity for continued use soon results in a loss of the ability to converse intelligently in the foreign tongue in question. This is not equally true of the ability to read the language, inasmuch as there is frequent occasion to use this knowledge.

"3. The direct method requires a fully trained language specialist. Thus far there is not an adequate supply of such teachers available.

"4. To obtain satisfactory results with this method there should be daily lessons of at least an hour's duration. It is not practicable to make a sufficient allowance of time in the high school course to provide for this.

"5. The values of conversational training are limited and contingent. Only a small portion of the high school pupils will find occasion to use an oral vocabulary, or be able to proceed further in its acquisition. The general course here, as elsewhere, must be arranged to meet the needs of the great majority of the class.

"In view of these facts, it has been deemed unwise to continue the oral examination in French. It is expected that the teacher will continue to give a part of his instruction in the foreign tongue, and give pupils some practice in oral expression. Teachers should encourage their pupils to learn short memory gems, and to carry on short dialogues in the foreign tongue. More stress will be laid in the future, however, on the linguistic and literary factors, with a view to training the pupils to read and write fluently.

"In the new curriculum a two-unit course is being offered in the first three years of the high school programme, and in addition, a one-unit course is to be offered in the fourth year."

III. THE SYLLABUS

French 1

Text—Fraser and Squair: *New Elementary Grammar*, Part I, Lessons 1-22 inclusive (Copp Clark).

Grammar—Full conjugation of the three regular verbs, also of *avoir* and *être*, together with the following irregular verbs: *vouloir*, *pouvoir*, *voir*, *faire*, *dire*, *mettre*, *écrire*, *prendre*, *venir*, *aller*, *lire*, *savoir*.

Reading—Cran's *Graduated French Reader* (Nelson).

Part I, Exercises 1-25.

Part II, Exercises 47, 48, 49.

Part III, Exercises 52, 53, 54, 59.

Special attention should be given to securing correct

pronunciation and accent. Throughout the course in all grades as much work in dictation and conversation should be given as time will permit. The early part of the grammar should be introduced through oral work as far as possible. Every teacher should adopt some definite and systematic plan for the teaching of pronunciation which may or may not be based on phonetics; but in view of the plan of the prescribed text-book in grammar, it is recommended that the phonetic system be adopted wherever possible.

French 2

Grammar—Text: Fraser and Squair's *New French Grammar*, Part I, Lessons 22-39 inclusive.

The following irregular verbs: a list of 50 verbs.

"Anecdotes" (pp. 190-208), may be omitted, or used by the teacher as illustrative material.

Prose—*Ontario High School French Reader* (New Edition), pp. 1-46.

Reading—One book from the following cycle:

Labiche: *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon*.

Labiche: *La Poudre aux Yeux*.

French 3

Grammar—Fraser and Squair: *New Complete French Grammar*.

A thorough review of the principles of Part I, supplemented with work from Part II. Special emphasis on continuous prose and free composition. All the irregular verbs outlined in the grammar.

Authors—One book from the following three-year cycle:

Erckmann-Chatrian: *Madame Thérèse*. Gréville: *Dosia*.

Erckmann-Chatrian: *Le Conscrit*. Sight translation.

German 1

Grammar—Ball: *A German Grammar*, Lessons I-XXX. Also the following special work in verbs: tense auxiliaries *haben*, *sein*, and *werden*: model weak verb *sagen*: model strong verb *singen* (pp. 174-181, Appendix).

Reading—Super: *Elementary German Reader*, first 20 anecdotes.

Accurate pronunciation should be insisted on from the beginning; the teacher should be especially careful to have the pupils distinguish between the long and short umlaut vowels, the guttural and the palatal *ch*, and in the written work, *sz* and *ss*.

Occasional practice in German script should be given (Lesson LXVIII, p. 138).

German 2

Grammar—Ball: *A German Grammar*. A thorough review of previous year's work; and lessons XXXI to the end.

Special attention should be given to the seven classes of strong verbs, the five classes of nouns, the determinatives, and the strong, weak and mixed declensions of adjectives.

For effective work in easy continuous prose, it is recommended that the students be required to have a dictionary.

Authors. One book from the following three-year cycle:

Ernst: *Flachsmann als Erzieher*. Baumbach: *Der Schwiegersohn*. Baumbach: *Waldnovellen*.

German 3

Grammar—Fraser and Van der Smitten: *High School German Grammar*.

Prose—Pope: *German Composition*. A regular assignment of prose should be given from the very beginning of the first term. Proficiency can be attained only by constant practice. Each student should have a German dictionary of his own.

Authors—Ebner Eschenbach: *Die Freiherren von Gemperlein*.

From the introduction and syllabus it appears that the attempt to teach the spoken language has been given up without a corresponding increase in the amount of material read. The first unit prescribes about 25 pages of material, most of which is rather childish, having apparently been compiled for beginners of ten or eleven years of age; some of it deals with French government and administration but these passages are of considerable vocabulary difficulty. The second unit calls for about 100 pages, and the third is somewhat more extensive. The outline should be compared with the specimen given in the chapter on examinations.

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

Eight teachers were seen at work in thirteen classes in which all stages of instruction were represented. The investigator considered that on the whole the department's recommendations were being carried out. Though the lessons observed were nearly all in grammar, several teachers were found to be using the language extensively in the course of instruction; English is, however, the usual vehicle for grammatical teaching. Many of the teachers are linguistically qualified for their task; four have an excellent command of French, and only 2 are noted as being weak in this respect. The observer considered that poor lessons were given in 3 cases, fair to good in 3, and excellent in one: the interest displayed by the pupils

corresponded as a rule to this estimate, though, curiously enough, in one case where the lesson was rated as very poor, the class were distinctly interested.

In most classes considerable attention is given to the teaching of pronunciation, usually by imitation, with definite stress on syllabification, and the results of this instruction are reported as good in 3 cases, fair in 3 with expectation of improvement, and poor in 2 cases. Little time is spent in discussing the manners and customs of the French nation, except by one teacher who had spent a year in Paris.

In general, teachers appear to think that the schedule does not allow them to divert the energies of their pupils in the direction of free composition, sight translation or collateral reading, though there is occasional dictation in a few classes. One teacher encourages pupils to act plays. Interesting and successful work is noted in a small country school attended by many Russian pupils.

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Returns from the high school questionnaire number 64 out of 69 schools addressed.

I. THE SCHOOLS

Language Courses

Courses of 3 years in French and Latin are reported by 48 and 46 schools respectively. The fourth or senior matriculation year is given by 12 schools in French and 9 in Latin, and 3 give 1 or 2 year courses in each language. German is offered by 3 schools for 1 year.

In the session of 1927-28 the City of Victoria has introduced the teaching of French into grade VII of its public school system, and Vancouver has done the same in its two new junior high schools.

Enrolment

The questionnaire returns show 7,661 pupils in French, or nearly 80% of the total enrolment; Latin has 4,903 or 51%. Provincial statistics give 8,546 in French and 5,418 in Latin, out of a total enrolment of 11,779, being approximately percentages respectively of 73 and 46. German claims the attention of 38 pupils. Survival percentages are fairly high in French; of every hundred beginners, 66 reach the second year, 44 the third, and rather more than 3 proceed to the fourth. Proportions in Latin are slightly lower.

Time-table

The majority of schools give 5 periods of 40 or 45 minutes in all years of instruction in French; this is the mode throughout the tabulation, but 10 schools report 6 periods of about the same length in the third year. Shorter periods occur in 8 schools without corresponding increase in the weekly number; 5 schools have periods running to 50 or 60 minutes and in one case classes have one hour's French every day. The average teacher gives 35 weekly lessons of 45 minutes each, and in most cases the class contains from 20 to 30 pupils, though 30 teachers have a smaller average class in languages: the maximum class exceeds 40 in 16 cases.

Equipment

School libraries in this province are not well provided with auxiliary material in French; about 25 schools own a small number of books, but only in two cases do these exceed 20. On the other hand, the class-room use of periodical literature is fairly common, and 20 schools report that they subscribe to one or more French magazines or papers; sometimes the pupils buy them as

one of the regular texts, and are found to read much more than the assigned pages. A few teachers say they use their own French libraries for lending to pupils, who do an appreciable amount of reading for themselves. In the course of class-room visiting it was noticed that several schools made a practice of posting pictures and post-cards on the walls of the class-room; one in particular offers pupils a wealth of material in the way of prints, maps, press clippings, advertising cuts, etc.; phonetic charts are frequently found, and some use is made of wall pictures for oral lessons. Five schools possess phonographs with French records.

II. THE TEACHERS

Questionnaires were returned by 95 teachers of French, one-third of whom are men; the total number of secondary teachers in the province is 348, with the percentage of men reaching as high as 63.

Degrees and Certificates

All teachers reporting hold university degrees: pass B.A., 44; honour B.A., 41; M.A. or other degrees, 20. In some cases the tabulation shows two degrees to one individual, which accounts for the discrepancy in the figures. Academic certificates are held by 75 teachers, other ratings by 13. University and professional qualifications are often derived from various sources outside the province; the list contains bachelors of arts from Liverpool, London, Cambridge and Trinity College, Dublin; a *licence en sciences commerciales* from Antwerp, a *certificat universitaire*, *diplôme de l'Alliance française*, *certificat d'études françaises*, teaching diplomas from Cambridge and Aberdeen, specialists certificates from Ontario.

Experience

The average length of service for 93 cases is 10.3 years: 16 teachers are in their first three years, 47 between the third and the twelfth, and 30 have longer periods to their credit; 7 have taught for 25 years or more.

Specialization

Full time teaching in French is done by 12 individuals, and 13 others devote 70 to 90 per cent. of their time to the subject; only 22 give less than 30 per cent. of their time to French.

Duration of Modern Language Study

Information under this heading is furnished by 89 teachers, who have studied French for an average of 7.6 years; 22 have done 4.6 years in German, and 68 average 6 years in Latin. Rather less than 2 years of Italian are credited to 7 teachers, and of Spanish to 16. Tabulation of the figures indicates that all except 6 have continued their French beyond the high school stage, and 23 have done more than 8 years; the mode of the distribution stands at 7 to 8 years, which implies 3 or 4 years of a university course in French. In German 14 teachers have less than 5 years, and 8 have 5 or more; 2 have continued the work for 10 or 12 years. The mode for Latin is 5 to 6 years, but 25 teachers have studied this language for longer periods.

These studies have been supplemented by work in Europe in the case of 17 teachers, and 4 others report that they have followed courses in Quebec; 20 have travelled abroad. Of those that have undertaken foreign study, 11, or nearly one-eighth, have devoted to it the equivalent of at least one university session, while 6 report one year or more.

Origin and Secondary Education

Nearly a quarter of the language teachers in this province have received their secondary education in countries other than Canada. Great Britain claims 15 and Ireland 3; 2 come from France, and 1 each from the United States, Germany and Belgium. French is the mother tongue of 3 teachers, and by a curious coincidence in the tabulation, 3 successive returns gave Erse, Welsh, and Gaelic.

III. THE SYLLABUS

French

Grades IX and X—Siepmann's *Primary French Course*. Part I. (Macmillan); or *The New Fraser and Squair Elementary French Grammar* (Copp Clark Co.); or any of a list of recommended text-books.

Requirements—Vocabulary and phrases, verbs, etc., as given in the *Programme of Studies*.

These lists were drawn up by a committee of teachers, and form a guide to the vocabulary and grammar to be taught in each year. The words and phrases are in the nature of a summary of the matter covered in the recommended texts.

Grade XI—The junior matriculation examination will test the candidates' knowledge of the work of grades IX, X, and XI according to the requirements in French set forth below.

There will be two papers of two hours each; the one to test knowledge of accidence and syntax applied to the writing of French; the other to test free composition and translation into French of a simple passage of prose.

Grade XII—(a) Literature—Molière: *Les Précieuses Ridicules* (Longmans).

(b) Language—Revision of the essentials of French grammar applied to the correct writing of French. Clément and Macirone: *Voici la France* (Heath).

German

Grade XI—Reading and Speaking.—Candidates will be expected to have a fair knowledge of German sounds and pronunciation. They must be able to read with ease German prose or verse of ordinary difficulty and to answer correctly in German simple questions based on the reading prescribed.

Grammar.—They will be expected to have a thorough practical knowledge of German accidence and of such points of syntax as are of frequent occurrence in ordinary prose style. This knowledge will be tested by asking them to modify sentences given, to fill in words necessary to complete sentences, or to change uninflected words to forms required by context, etc.

Translation at sight into English of a German passage of moderate difficulty, dealing with German life, ways, and customs. A knowledge of useful words will be required.

Translation into German of detached English sentences and of an easy English passage. A knowledge of simple idiomatic and colloquial German expressions will be required.

Books recommended: (a) Zinnecker: *Deutsch für Anfänger*, Exercises 1-32 (Heath).

(b) Haertel: *German Reader for Beginners* (Ginn).

N.B.—Teachers should insist upon correct pronunciation and use the language as much as possible in class instruction. Two papers of two hours each.

Grade XII—Language.—Completion and Revision of Zinnecker: *Deutsch für Anfänger* (Heath).

Composition based on texts read.

Reading—Moser: *Der Bibliothekar* (Ginn).

Hillern: *Höher als die Kirche* (Scribners).

Heine: *Die Harzreise* (Allyn and Bacon).

The syllabus, which is further described in the chapter on examinations, is designed to give great freedom to the teacher in the choice of text-books and methods. Two grammars are specially mentioned, but no regulations are laid down as to the amount to be covered in either, and other beginners' texts may be chosen if the teacher so desires; practically all of these alternatives are books labelled direct method, and some of them are used in individual schools to precede a more comprehensive grammar. Information gathered from 9 replies to the special teacher questionnaire indicates that a common practice is to begin with the Curtis and Robert, *Oral Lessons*, covering the first four or five parts in two years; but 2 teachers use Siepmann, Part I, and 1 prefers the *New Fraser and Squair*. In only 2 cases is there any mention of supplementary reading in the first year; one school does about 20 pages of the Aldrich and Foster *French Reader*, and the other covers the whole of *Lectures illustrées* in two years.

In the second year the grammar text-book is continued and the amount of reading markedly increased: 2 teachers cover some 130 pages of the Wooley and Bourdin *French Reader for Beginners*, 1 reports 50 pages of *Histoires et jeux*, and 2 use *Le Petit Journal*. The programme for the third year varies less from school to school. Siepmann, Part II, is in general use: *Tartarin de Tarascon* is read in one school and *Le petit Chose* in another, but there are cases in which the reading is confined to journalistic matter of the kind mentioned above. Among the texts recommended for the third

year are About, *Le roi des montagnes*: Labiche et Martin, *Le voyage de M. Perrichon*: Gauthier, *Le pied de Momie*: and collections of verse are suggested from which poems are to be memorized.

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATIONS

Eight teachers were visited in 7 schools. Of the 11 classes observed 5 were engaged in grammar lessons, 4 in conversation, and 2 in translation. The investigator's impression was that the teaching in most cases reached a high standard, and the pupils were in general interested in the work. On the phonetic side of the instruction results were not so good; the teachers did not, on the whole, though with notable exceptions, display a sufficient command of the language, and it did not appear that much attention was given to pronunciation, which is reported as poor except in two classes; the pronunciation teaching method most commonly seen in operation was that of imitation, but one teacher used phonetic charts and drilled on the use of the script; however, several of the teachers who replied to the high school questionnaire make systematic use of phonetic instruction. Translation is less widely employed than in other provinces; one class was heard in chorus reading of a text, and in another case pupils are set to prepare their reading as homework.

In the classes visited there was little evidence of the use of free composition, dictation and sight translation, but the gap can be partly filled from the special teacher questionnaire. The question on division of class-room time was answered by seven of the respondents, and their replies may be summarized as follows: three give half their time to grammar throughout the course, while four limit it in the first two years to about one-fifth. Transla-

tion is usually estimated to consume from 10 to 20% of teaching hours, though 1 teacher does none at all for 2 years and little in the third. Composition is employed "a little" by 3 teachers in the first year, and by others from 20 to 40% in all years. Free composition is rare before the third year, when 2 teachers make considerable use of it and others estimate that it takes 5, 15, or 20 per cent. of the time. All are agreed that close attention is given to pronunciation in the early years, but it is somewhat reduced in the third; with this go exercises in dictation and conversation. The time given to written work is variable; 3 teachers make it 10%, with an increase in the third year, but 4 set down from 50 to 70 as the percentage of class-room time spent in writing. In homework the usual estimate is 75%. Audition tests, apart from dictation, are rare, but 2 teachers give periodical tests of oral ability.

MANITOBA

I. THE SCHOOLS

Instruction of high school grade is given by 75 schools in Manitoba. Twenty of these are classed as collegiate departments and junior high schools. Questionnaires were addressed to 53 schools and returned by 44.

Language Courses

A course in French of 3 years is offered by 33 schools. Nine others add a fourth year, leading to senior matriculation, and one reports a fifth. German is offered by only 3 schools, in each case for 2 years. In Latin the three-year course is normal, but 8 schools give only 2 years, and the higher work is taught in 5.

Enrolment

In this province official returns do not show enrolment by subjects; in the report for 1925 the number of pupils in secondary grades was 13367 and the sampling given by the H.S.Q. for 1926 totals 10793, which is probably large enough to ensure a good degree of reliability since language instruction is not as a rule offered in schools below the standing of two-teacher high schools, whose pupils are counted in the department's figures for total enrolment. Enrolment in French amounts to 8911 or 82.6 per cent. of the total sampled. A feature of the enrolment record in Manitoba is the high percentage of pupils continuing the study into the third year; of every 100 beginners in French, 82 reach the second year and 73 go on to the third, while the percentages for the fourth and fifth years are 18 and 2.5. Latin has lower figures both for total enrolment, 4347 or 40.4 per cent. of the whole, and for survival; 56 per cent. of beginners reach the second year, 34 the third, 15 the fourth, and 2 the fifth.

In German the recorded figures show only 21 pupils, all in the first year.

Manitoba has 9 junior high schools with a total enrolment of about 1200 pupils, most of whom are studying a language; no statistics are available on enrolment in French for these schools, the curriculum of which is described on a later page.

Time-table

In the first two years there is little uniformity in the organization of the time-table; 3, 4, or 5 periods a week are of nearly equal frequency, 3 being the commonest. In the third year, 22 schools report 5 periods, 10 have less and 8 use 6 or 7. The period is usually of 30 to 40 minutes,

with a mode at 35 in all years. The norm for the teacher's working week stands at 36 periods totaling about 23 hours. Classes are large; of 71 teachers making returns, 36 have on the average more than 30 pupils in each language class, and 14 have an average of over 40. Single classes of more than 40 are mentioned by 36, or more than half the respondents.

Equipment

Library equipment is in general scanty. Twenty schools have a few dictionaries or texts, but only 3 of these report more than 20 volumes, and none have as many as 100. Three have a few works in German and the same number report for Spanish. French periodicals are bought by 8 schools. Phonographs exist in 21 institutions, but none of them appear to possess records in French or a foreign language, although officially recommended to use them.

II. THE TEACHERS

Returns covering the qualifications of teachers have been received from 71 individuals, of whom only 17, or 24 per cent. are men.

Degrees and certificates

The degree of B.A. is held by 55 teachers, 28 of whom have taken honours, though not necessarily in modern languages; the master's or other degrees are held by 5 persons. The grade A and collegiate certificate are reported by 62 of these teachers, while 7 have other professional qualifications. Three have special certificates as to their aptitude for modern language work.

Experience

The record of professional experience shows that the 70 teachers have an average length of service of 10.2 years; the proportion of beginners is small, and 30 cases occur in the interval 3 to 9 years. Only 6 report more than 20 years.

Specialization

The organization of language teaching tends towards specialization by individuals. No less than 17, or very nearly 25% of those engaged in the work, give four-fifths or more of their time to it; ten persons teach nothing else; 20 report that less than 30% of their teaching time is devoted to languages.

Duration of modern language study

The average number of years spent in the directed study of the languages taught is: French, 7 years, German 5 years, Latin 5 years. Very few teachers have studied Italian or Spanish, and then only for 2 years. About half have studied German, and all except 7 record work in Latin. Few teachers report less than 5 years of study in French; 21 have 5 or 6, and 29 have 7 or 8; 13 record longer periods. It appears then that the great majority of teachers in Manitoba have taken at least one year's university work in French; half of them have continued it to the third or fourth year, and one-sixth have done graduate or foreign study in the language. About one-third report travel in Europe, and 16 have also studied, 9 of them for the equivalent of at least one university session.

Origin and secondary education

In Ontario and the East it is unusual to find teachers whose secondary education has been acquired outside

the Dominion; in the western provinces, however, there is a greater proportion of such persons. Manitoba language teachers include 7 who were brought up in Great Britain, 2 in the United States, 1 each in France and Switzerland; the latter give French as their native tongue, while another teacher is bilingual, and one speaks Icelandic.

III. THE SYLLABUS

FRENCH

Grade IX—*Mes Premiers Pas en Français*, (Heath); *New Elementary French Grammar*, Fraser and Squair, (Copp Clark), Lessons I to XII.

As much emphasis as possible in class-room work should be put upon the conversational use of language; careful attention to be given to reading aloud, dictation, memorizing.

The Rosenthal system of language records and texts is recommended for oral work in the class-room in all grades of the high school course.

Grade X—*New Elementary French Grammar*, to end of Lesson XXIV. Any one of the following: *Lectures Faciles*, (Oxford University Press); *Contes et Légendes*, (Harrop); *Pour Charmer Nos Petits*, (Heath); *L'Echo de France*, (A paper published by Evans, Bros., London, Eng., at 2d. a copy).

Conjugation of irregular verb to be completed. One of the following will be found very helpful in studying the verb: *Short Theory of the Conjugation of the French Verb*—Müller, (Copp, Clark); *Passe-partout Verb Leaf*, Baker, (Russell, Lang).

Grade XI. 1. (a) *New Elementary French Grammar*, Chapters 1 to 39, and the irregular verbs. Müller's *Short Theory of the Conjugation of the French Verb*. (b) Composi-

tion: (1) Translation into French of short sentences as a test of the candidate's knowledge of grammatical forms and structures, and the formation in French of sentences of similar character; and (2) translation of easy passages from English into French. (c) Dictation, reading aloud, memorizing, conversation, continued.

2. Authors:—an examination on the following texts: Malot, *Sans Famille*, (Heath); Labiche, *La Grammaire*, (Copp, Clark). Sight translation: translation of unspecified passages from easy French authors.

Grade XII. (a) French Grammar and Composition. Text: *The New Fraser and Squair Complete French Grammar*, Part II.

Complete review of the verb, and pages 34-208 with associated exercises. The examination will include a test in dictation. (b) Authors: Dumas, *Les Trois Mousquetaires* (Heath); Mérimée, *Colomba*, (Holt).

Approximately half the marks assigned to translation as such in the examination will be given to sight work of appropriate grade.

PREScription FOR FRENCH IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Grade VII. Oral Exercises.

Grade VIII. The following work in French will be tested at the December examinations in grade VIII. Classes using *Scènes Canadiennes*—8 sections pp. 75-98 inclusive. Classes using *Le Français par la Conversation*, pp. 1-35, inclusive.

Grade IX. Lessons 1-12, inclusive, from *Fraser and Squair*, 1922 edition, and the following verbs: *parler, rompre, avoir, être, dire, écrire, faire, lire, aller, traduire, venir, voir, vouloir, boire, connaître, mettre, partir, pouvoir, prendre, savoir*. Reading: 1st half of *Pour charmer* or its equivalent.

GERMAN

Grade IX. Vos, *Essentials of German* (Holt).

Grade X. *Essentials of German*, to end of Lesson XVII.

Grade XI. 1. (a) Grammar: *Essentials of German*, Vos. (H. Holt & Co.). (b) Composition: (1) Translation into German of short English sentences as a test of the candidate's knowledge of grammatical forms and structure, and the formation in German of sentences of similar character; and (2) translation of easy passages from English into German.

2. Authors: *A Second year German Course and Reader*. Yandell, (G. Bell). Benedix, *Eigensinn*, (Copp, Clark),

Sight Translation:—translation of unspecified passages from easy German authors.

Grade XII. The Grade XII work in German is identical with the first year in the university.

ICELANDIC AND SWEDISH

Students taking two foreign languages may elect either Icelandic or Swedish as their second language, if they wish. The syllabus outlines a three-year high school course in Icelandic.

This syllabus attaches much importance to the oral work of the earlier years, going so far as to recommend the use of a phonographic course; a recommendation which does not appear to be adopted. Provision is made for a test in dictation at the matriculation stage, but so far it has not been found practicable to carry out this part of the examination.

While the general plan of the schedule bears some resemblance to the Ontario scheme of study, it makes an important departure in the ruling that half the marks in

the senior authors paper shall be allotted to sight translation.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The most interesting feature of the Manitoba plan is found in its experiment in junior high school French. The provincial outline for grades VII to IX in these schools is amplified in the more detailed instructions issued by the school board of the city of Winnipeg, where most of the junior high schools are located. In grade VII the usual practice is to offer only French, though pupils of marked linguistic ability may be allowed to begin Latin at the same time. In grade VIII, both languages are taken up by the majority of the pupils. The objective set for these junior pupils is the intensive study of the work usually covered in the first high school year; it will be observed in the appended outline, that the prescription for grade IX junior high school differs only from that for the senior beginners by the addition of a few irregular verbs. In passing to the senior high school the junior pupils are for the most part absorbed into grades IX or X. A few of the best juniors go direct to grade XI of the senior school, but many who have had French in grades VII and VIII mingle with the beginners in grade IX; the latter, it is reported, often do as well by the end of the year as those who have had the advantage of the early start. The available test figures on this question are given in another chapter.

OUTLINE FOR FRENCH IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, WINNIPEG

The plan of study is indicated by the following excerpts from Circular No. 7 of the School Board, Winnipeg, 1926. The method outlined has perhaps been suggested by the

Quebec system; it insists on grammatical mastery at every stage, and makes little provision for training the reading ability that is required in the upper years of the course.

Grade VII. Oral exercises to secure correct pronunciation. The meaning of the words used for this purpose to be mastered as they are introduced. Words to be combined into phrases and short sentences that help to illustrate constructions in frequent use. In this way three things are steadily pursued: pronunciation, vocabulary and construction.

Choose the vocabulary from words that represent the activities and interests of children of twelve years and upwards. Articles, common connectives, prepositions and pronouns are to be introduced as needed. Do not attempt an extensive vocabulary and postpone introduction of the verb *être* in any form until the young student has had practice in using the French equivalent for such forms as, am singing, is running, are listening, was giving, etc. Use imperative mood, and indicative in present, past, indefinite and future.

As soon as reasonable progress has been made in pronunciation, pupils should have practice in reading from the blackboard, in copying phrases, in writing to dictation, in writing in French English phrases and sentences that can be translated within the vocabulary and construction studied.

Avoid formal grammar, allowing grammatical relations to appear from the meaning.

Go slowly, review repeatedly and aim at mastery at every step. Mastery comes only by frequent use, and at every stage adequate drill on work previously presented, as well as on the lesson of the day, must be given.

Grade VIII. The following work in French will be tested at the December examinations in grade VIII:

Classes using *Scènes Canadiennes*—8 sections pp. 75-98 inclusive. Classes using *Le Français par la Conversation*, pp. 1-35 inclusive.

At each stage, the work should be so carried on that the student may be trained to apply in sentences made by himself the grammatical usages presented in the lessons. The test at the end of the first term will call for the ability on the part of the pupil to express himself in simple French sentences within the compass of the vocabulary and grammatical forms included in the foregoing.

The purpose of thus limiting the amount of work to be covered is to secure such accurate knowledge of the vocabulary and grammatical usages as will enable the pupil at each step to employ readily and accurately every word and usage that he has been taught. With this end in view, the material should be worked over and over until both words and constructions become permanent possessions. Only by frequent repetition can accuracy and readiness be acquired.

Grade IX. Lessons 1-12, inclusive, from Fraser and Squair, 1922 edition, and the following verbs: *parler, rompre, avoir, être, dire, écrire, faire, lire, aller, traduire, venir, voir, vouloir, boire, connaître, mettre, partir, pouvoir, prendre, savoir.*

Reading: 1st half of *Pour charmer* or its equivalent.

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

The amount of information gathered from class-room observation and the S.T.Q. is not sufficient to warrant any generalizations. The usual complaint is registered about the difficulty of doing oral work with the large classes found in the city schools, and one teacher notes the weakness of the grammatical foundation in the mother tongue,

adding that this difficulty is increased in schools where the children of immigrants are numerous. There is an observable tendency to stress the teaching of grammar, which in several cases is reported to occupy up to 50 per cent. of the available time. Free composition and dictation are little used; a few lessons were seen in which texts were treated by reading and conversation, but the teacher did not always appear to have the necessary linguistic capacity. Comparing these returns with the record of teacher qualifications, it is felt that further research might give a more encouraging view of language work in this province.

NEW BRUNSWICK

I. THE SCHOOLS

Language Courses

French is the only modern language taught in this province. It is regularly offered as a three-year course, but the department of education recommends the establishment of a fourth year course; this has been done in a very few schools.

Enrolment

Enrolment in French is about 90% of the whole and has been so for about ten years. In 1911 it was 80 per cent. The total enrolment in secondary schools is over 3400 having nearly doubled since 1911. Percentage enrolment in French remains the same throughout the three high school years, but the 31 pupils in grade XII all take French and Latin.

Time-table

There is little uniformity in the time-table, school

periods varying in length from 20 to 60 minutes. The latter figure obtains in 6 schools out of the 34 giving information, and 14 others have periods of 45 minutes or more. Of schools using the 55 or 60 minute period, the majority give 2 or 3 lessons a week, but there are isolated cases of 4 and 5 periods. When the period is of 45 or 50 minutes, the usual practice is to give 3 or 4 lessons, but 2 schools have only 2. Schools using a shorter period have for the most part a smaller enrolment of secondary pupils and do not increase the number of periods.

The teacher's week in New Brunswick high schools is on the average slightly less than 24 hours. Since much of the secondary teaching is carried on in the rural centres, classes are usually small, but 16 teachers report an average attendance of over 30 in their French classes. Ten have a maximum class of over 40, but on the other hand, 23 teachers have no class exceeding 20 in number.

Equipment

Provision of school libraries in modern languages, charts, phonographs, etc. is rare in New Brunswick. Five schools report having each a few books, but the number in no case exceeds 20.

II. THE TEACHERS

Of the 52 teachers of French who completed the questionnaire, 35, or over 67 per cent., are men. This is the highest proportion recorded in all provinces.

Degrees and certificates

Twenty-one of these teachers hold the bachelor's or higher degree. The grammar school licence is held by 16, and the superior licence by 28.

Experience

The average length of teaching experience is just under 10 years; half the number reporting have less than 6 years' service. All teachers reporting from New Brunswick were born in Canada. Two of them are bilingual.

Specialization

The returns show only one teacher who gives full time to language work; 8 others spend about two-thirds of their teaching hours on it, but the great majority are apparently teaching the subject as part of their class routine.

Duration of modern language study

Of 41 teachers, all have studied French for an average of 4.4 years, 35 have about 5 years in Latin, 4 report 2.5 years of German, and 1 has a slight knowledge of Italian. The tabulation shows further that 15 teachers of French have studied that language for more than 4 years, and only 7 have continued it beyond the fifth year. One teacher has studied for a year in Europe, and 1 has travelled for a short time. The returns from this province are, however, by no means complete and it is possible that some of the better qualified teachers are not represented in this summary.

III. THE SYLLABUS

FRENCH

Grade IX. The New Fraser and Squair French Grammar, to the end of lesson 29.

Grade X. French Grammar completed. MacMillan's First Reader—Lessons 1 to 21 and lessons 38 to 49.

Grade XI. French Grammar reviewed. Macmillan's Second Reader. Lessons 1 to 25. Racine, Esther.

Texts

This syllabus is notable for its bold treatment of the grammar, which is completed in outline in two years, a plan followed in no other province except Alberta. No text is read in the first year, but the grade X pupil is introduced to material of more than ordinary difficulty for beginners. The passages assigned comprise some 50 pages of prose, about 400 words to the page, and over 300 lines of verse. The matter consists of short stories from various sources, including translations from Homer and Herodotus, of moderate difficulty if they are to be, as the introduction suggests, "construed", but quite beyond the capacity of second year pupils if the objective is to learn to read. The first fifteen extracts are provided with line by line vocabularies and notes, many of which deal with classical heroes and history, and the rest of the book is furnished with an alphabetical word list. This contains about 4000 words, and others that appear only once in the shorter vocabularies are not repeated. The number of rare words appears to be high.

The prose reading prescribed for grade XI comprises 16 pages of fiction, including a long passage from *Gil Blas*, and 50 pages of history, of which 10 are classical, the rest dealing with mediæval and modern France. There is no vocabulary, and the notes are "grammatical and philological". An introduction explains the difference between "popular" and "learned" derivations, and refers the student to Brachet's *Grammaire historique*.

It would appear that these texts are designed for the pupil who is taking French as a supplement to his classical studies. The choice of *Esther* as a school text seems to point in the same direction. Teachers say they have to give their pupils much assistance in reading it, and in any case it is doubtful whether even the exceptional pupil in

the third high school year is capable of understanding a French classical play.

The form of examination is discussed in another chapter, but it may be noted that the newly adopted pattern of the paper in French is likely to affect class-room procedure, and is already being imitated in the construction of school tests.

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

Observation of classes in New Brunswick gave the impression that the grammar-translation method is in general use, and it is probable that teachers with their present qualifications would find difficulty in departing from it, even if the assigned texts gave them the opportunity. On the other hand, the new *Grammar* gives a skilful teacher scope for considerable variation of method. A summary of the investigator's notes gives the following results:—10 teachers were seen at work; command of the language was in most cases poor to fair; of the lessons observed, one was a class in conversation, the rest grammar and translation; interest of the pupils poor to fair, with two exceptions, in which teachers of unusual personality succeeded in holding the attention of their classes. Little attention is paid to the teaching of pronunciation, the quality of which in the pupils varies from bad to poor, and is reported good in one class only; the method usually employed is that of imitation; in three cases an attempt is made to parallel the work of the French teacher by giving instruction in history classes on topics such as the French Revolution; free composition, dictation, sight reading and oral tests are practically unknown.

The machinery of the grammar method as observed in the class-room of a very capable teacher whose interest and training were not in French but in mathematics,

showed the influence of classical methods. Pupils were asked to analyse the construction of a sentence or to parse a word; on the blackboard appeared "*favourable*—adj.—positive—fem.—sing.—modifies *occasion*" Grammatical formulae are much in evidence: "*journées de Crécy*—why use *de*?—because it is an adjectival phrase." The class was admirably organized and no time lost either in the course of recitations or in the blackboard work. Pupils read in French, and the teacher made use of an Acadian pupil as a model of pronunciation. The boy read accurately enough, but did not enunciate with sufficient definition to achieve the purpose. This teacher gives regular and carefully prepared tests and plans her work according to the results shown. The principal and other members of the staff were deeply interested in the committee's work, and fully cognizant of the possibilities in educational measurement.

NOVA SCOTIA

I. THE SCHOOLS

Language courses

The modern languages taught in Nova Scotia high school grades are French and German. Provision has been recently made for the introduction of Spanish, and a list of authorized texts drawn up; schools desiring to do so may offer instruction in Spanish in the session of 1927-28. The regular course covers three years of French and two of German leading to junior matriculation. In urban schools only is a fourth year of instruction offered in French and a third in German, leading to the grade XII or senior matriculation examination.

Enrolment

In 1926 the secondary school population of the province was slightly less than 12,000, divided between urban and rural schools in the ratio of 13 to 11, and of this total approximately 75 per cent. were studying French and 5 per cent. German. The percentage of language pupils is higher in the urban schools, and falls as low as 50 per cent. in one-teacher village schools. Enrolment in German is mainly confined to urban schools.

Time-table

The organization of the time-table varies greatly, but on the average, pupils receive two hours of instruction per week in three forty minute periods; in several cases the period is longer, 50 or even 60 minutes, and at the other end of the scale are found schools giving as little as two periods of 20 minutes.

The average teaching week in Nova Scotia comprises 22 hours, and, as noted above, there is much variety in the length of the period, but about 40 minutes is the average. Classes are small; thirty-five teachers report a mean of under 31, and twenty-two have a mean of 31 or over. In six cases the teacher has an average of over fifty pupils, and twelve have largest classes of this size, but the majority of the returns show largest classes of under 31.

Equipment

In the matter of technical equipment, the schools of Nova Scotia are not well supplied. Only 25% of those returning information under this heading report the existence of a library of French or German books and periodicals, and in no case does the number of volumes reach 50. It was found, however, in the course of class-

room observation, that many individual teachers were alive to the need for such provision, and in some cases had established the beginnings of a working library by their personal efforts. In general, the matter does not appear to command the attention of school boards.

II. THE TEACHERS

Of the 67 teachers of modern languages from whom information is available, 34 are men, a very high percentage when compared with the figures for other parts of the Dominion.

Degrees and certificates

About two-thirds of these teachers have university degrees, and one quarter hold the academic licence, the highest professional certificate in the province. Of the 3300 teachers in Nova Scotia, slightly less than 200 have degrees, and only about 50 the academic licence.

Experience

The average period of service reported by teachers of language stands at less than 11 years, which is rather higher than the average obtaining in most provinces; but Nova Scotia has more than the usual proportion of young teachers, no less than 14 out of 63 reporting less than three years' experience. In the whole provincial system of education, one third of the teachers are in their first year of service and two-thirds have taught for less than five years.

Specialization

The Nova Scotia schools are rarely large enough to require one teacher to devote all his time to a single

subject, so that complete specialization in modern languages occurs in only one case. There are, however, eight other teachers whose work lies predominantly in this field, and nine more who spend half their teaching hours at language work; some of these are teaching in schools of about a hundred pupils, and are apparently doing all the French for their school. At least half of those making returns seem to be taking French as one of their regular class subjects.

Duration of modern language study

The average teacher of French in Nova Scotia has studied it for slightly over 5 years, and of German a fraction less than 3; 26 teachers have 4 years or less of study in French to their credit, that is to say, grade XII or first year university French; 23 others have 5 or 6 years, and 17 report at least 7 years, or a complete school and university course in the language. Ten of this group have continued the study beyond the seventh year. Five teachers have a record of European study in their subject.

III. THE SYLLABUS

FRENCH

Grade IX. High School French Grammar, by Fraser and Squair, (Copp, Clark), lessons I to XXV inclusive. *First Conversational French Reader*, (Longmans), lessons 1 to 25 inclusive.

Grade X. High School French Grammar, lessons XXVI to LI, inclusive, with a review of the preceding lessons. *First Conversational Reader*, lessons 26 to the end of book, including the section on "Conversation".

Grade XI. Specimens of Modern French Prose, (Macmillan), omitting IV, VI IX, and X. *High School French*

Grammar, lessons LII—LXXXIII, inclusive, with a review of the preceding lessons.

Grade XII. High School French Grammar, complete, Sandeau, *Sacs et Parchemins* (Macmillan). Molière, *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* (Heath): with questions on grammar and composition.¹

GERMAN

Grade X. Joynes-Meissner's *Grammar* (Heath) to end of lesson XXV, with Buchheim's *Modern German Reader*, Part I (Oxford Univ. Press), first division only.

Grade XI. Joynes-Meissner's *Grammar* to end of Lesson XLIV, with Buchheim's *Modern German Reader*, Part I, complete. Review of grade X German.

Grade XII. Buchheim's *Modern German Reader*, Part II to end of section 10, second division, and Schiller, *Wilhelm Tell*, Acts I, II, III, and IV. Joynes-Meissner's *Grammar* for grammar and composition.²

SPANISH³

Grade X. Hills and Ford, *First Spanish Course* (Heath) with Wilkins' *Beginner's Spanish Reader* (Holt).

Grade XI. Same Grammar as in X with De Haan and Morrison, *Cuentos Modernos* (Heath).

Grade XII. Same Grammar as in X and XI with the following readers: Taboada, *Cuentos Alegres*; Carrión-Aza, *Zaragüeta*; Alarcón, *El Capitán Veneno*.

¹For 1927-28 the prescribed texts are: grade XI, Manley, *Eight French Stories* (Allyn and Bacon); grade XII, Theuriet, *L'Abbé Daniel*; Labiche et Martin, *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon*; Hunkins, *Favourite French Poems*.

²For 1927-28 the prescription is: grade X, Lang and Needler, *High School German Grammar*, (Ryerson) and *Glückauf*, Ginn, pp. 1-66. In grade XI the same texts are in use, with the addition of Bagster-Collins, *First German Reader*, (Holt), pp. 1-44. In *Glückauf* pp. 69-171 are read. Grade XII covers another 40 pages of the *Reader* and the whole of Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*.

³Prescription effective 1927-28.

Texts

The most striking feature of the old syllabus in French is the difficulty of the texts prescribed. The reader used in the first two years contains about 100 pages of anecdotes and short stories almost ungraded as to grammatical difficulty, and employing a wide range of vocabulary, much of which consists of comparatively rare words. An analysis of this vocabulary has been made on the basis of Henmon's *French Word Count*, and comparison made with a school edition of Mérimée's *Colomba*, a text that has been used with much acceptance in fourth and fifth year classes in other provinces.

Longmans' <i>Conversational Reader</i>		<i>Colomba</i>	
1st thousand	992 or 42.2%	960 or	27%
2nd thousand	511 21.7%	705	20%
Below 2nd thousand . . .	322 13.62%	746	21%
Not in list	523 22.2%	1112	32%
Total vocabulary	2348	3532	

LEGEND. 992 or 42.2% of the words in the text of the *Reader* belong to the 1st thousand of Henmon's *Word Count*.

This shows that the reader is distinctly difficult in vocabulary for beginners and second year pupils. If 2000 words is a fair vocabulary load for the first two years, and it is heavier than the average, it is reasonable to assume that most of these words should be of common occurrence, whereas 35% of the words met in this book are comparatively rare.

The text used in the third year is a collection of *nouvelles* by Balzac, de Vigny, Dumas, Theuriet and Bourget. The prescribed pages number about 110 and probably run to 35,000 words. Word difficulty is considerable, and greatly increased by the absence of a translating vocabu-

lary at the end of the book. A small dictionary is used by pupils, but much of the onus of translation falls on the teacher. The preparation of these two readers is accomplished by laborious deciphering, and it is doubtful whether at any stage the average pupil learns to read in the true sense. However, the Nova Scotian schools made a good record in the comprehension test.

The Nova Scotia syllabus, which is in process of drastic revision,¹ seems to show the influence of an earlier pedagogical generation, who considered that modern languages were too easy and must be weighted with textual difficulties, or elevated by the use of literary *chefs d'œuvre* without regard for the pupils' fitness or unfitness to appreciate them. Hence the insistence on classical works in the school list; only recently has Corneille's *Polyeucte* been struck off, and Molière is still represented. Hence also the choice of a text without vocabulary and loaded with historical and classical annotations.

Examinations

Provincial high school examinations are set in all grades; those of the 11th and 12th are described in the chapter on examinations and the other two comprise questions in formal grammar, traces of functional grammar, a few sentences and some passages of prepared translation. A typical question is "Give all the forms of the possessive pronouns and state the rules for their agreement, giving three examples to illustrate their use."

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

Class-room visitation left the investigator with a strong impression that teachers are making effective and con-

¹See note above, page 454.

scientious efforts to apply the grammar method that is forced upon them by their own limitations and by the form of examination for which they have to prepare pupils. The mainstay of the method as applied is found in the citation of rules; language is represented as fitting into the grammatical framework, and examples sparingly employed. There is little use of the ear as an auxiliary to the eye in understanding the printed text, probably because few teachers have sufficient confidence in their phonetic ability to venture on systematic reading aloud. In some classes, however, passages were read in chorus, but the collective accent was weak and errors were not always corrected. For grammatical instruction, black-board correction is in frequent use and generally well organized to get the maximum number of pupils at work. In this process teachers were too often content to allow corrections to be spelled without reading the new version or applying rapid drill for fixing it. A typical error of the system was brought to light when the liaison of *tu seras aimé* was not recognized until the phrase was written. In another case the oral exercises provided in a grammar exercise were treated as sentences for written translation. One teacher ran the risk of error fixation by repeating a mistake five or six times while asking the class to correct it.

Interest varied, as it always must, with the capacity and personality of the teacher, but it should be noted that the majority of the classes visited in this province appeared to be enjoying the instruction given them. There were exceptions, and then the work attained a high degree of dullness. In some cases the work done in translation gave a good return and the renderings were accurate with occasional evidence of a feeling for style. Too often the translation lesson was obscured by misplaced grammatical digressions.

Teachers' opinions

While class-room method and practice left something to be desired, the teachers displayed great interest and enthusiasm in their work and were eager to discuss ways and means of improving it. The investigator had the privilege of talking with the members of a committee of leading language teachers who were occupied in drawing up a new syllabus. It was evident that the teaching body is intelligently ready for reform and that individuals are investigating and experimenting with a view to discovering remedies for a situation recognized to be unsatisfactory. There was much discussion of systems based on phonographs and on vocabulary pictures. Teachers voiced the usual desire to attempt the so-called direct method, and the opinion was expressed that teaching was worth little if it did not enable the pupil to speak a language in four years. It was generally admitted that only a small percentage of teachers in the province are capable of using the language in the class-room, and stress was laid on the difficulty, on account of distance and expense, of attending teachers' summer schools elsewhere.

Confirmation of the above impressions is afforded by the answers to the selected teachers' questionnaire, which was completed by six teachers in this province. In general they consider that the limitations of time-table and examination confine their efforts within narrow boundaries; and that even if this were not so, too few teachers have the necessary equipment to venture farther afield. Several of them estimate that 50% of their time is taken up by grammatical instruction in the lower years, and that the emphasis is later shifted to translation; little attention is given to oral work, tests in aural comprehension are rare or unknown, dictation seldom practised, phonetic instruction uncommon, and free composition

almost entirely neglected. Memorization of word lists is found; texts are not usually read aloud either by teacher or pupil. It is important to note that these teachers agree in their estimate that written work occupies half the class-room hours, and considerably more of the time given to preparation.

One teacher makes a special return for German, bringing out the following points; about 100 pages of text are read in grades X and XI; the oral side of the work receives more attention than is the case for French, and occasional tests are set in aural comprehension; pupils write free compositions. In other respects this teacher's replies are in line with those of his colleagues.

Prospects

The education office of Nova Scotia is taking vigorous steps toward the improvement of modern language teaching. In the summer of 1927, a teachers' course was instituted at Halifax, giving instruction, among other things, in methods and linguistics. A number of phonographs have been ordered and are to be tried in representative schools. It can be confidently stated that there is every prospect of early and rapid advance in the teaching of modern languages in Nova Scotia.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

I. THE SCHOOLS

Secondary education in this province is officially defined as: grades IX and X in the public schools: first and second years (grades XI and XII) in the Prince of Wales College and Provincial Normal School.

Language courses

The only modern language taught is French. It is

offered in all four years of the high school course, and a fifth year in the Prince of Wales College course is given standing as equivalent to the first year (in some cases, second) in Canadian universities.

Enrolment

All secondary school pupils, numbering about 1700 according to the last official figures, take French and Latin throughout the course. Enrolment in grades IX and X is scattered through 250 schools, of which many have less than 5 secondary pupils, only 15 have more than 20, and 4 exceed 50. In the higher grades there are about 270.

Time-table

In the conditions described above, returns given by the high school questionnaire are naturally imperfect, and as a matter of fact represent only about 25 per cent. of the pupils in IX and X. From these it appears that the length of the teaching period varies from 15 to 60 minutes, with a total of 2 hours per week, though there are numerous exceptions. Individual teachers report a working week ranging from 63 periods of 20 minutes to 36 of 40 minutes. Classes rarely contain more than 10 pupils.

Equipment

Library equipment in French is rarely found. Some provision is made in this respect for the grades in the Prince of Wales College.

II. THE TEACHERS

Of the 27 teachers making returns, 12 are men.

Six hold the bachelor's or other degree and 17 have the provincial first class certificate, 9 the second class or other.

Teaching experience averages 10.5 years. One-fifth of the teachers are in the first three years of their service.

Specialization in the teaching of French is rare.

The average length of academic training in French is 5.44 years. Eight of the 25 teachers reporting have followed a course of more than 5 years. Four have 9 years or more. One has studied in Europe and 5 have travelled.

III. SYLLABUS

FRENCH

Grade IX. Fraser and Squair, *High School French Grammar*, lessons I to XXIX.

Grade X. Fraser and Squair, *High School French Grammar*, to and including lesson XLI.

Grade XI (first year in the Prince of Wales College and Provincial Normal School). Fraser and Squair, pp. 1-175.

Second Year. Fraser and Squair, completed: Daudet, *Le Petit Chose*.

Third Year. *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* (Molière); *La Belle Nivernaise* (Daudet); *Colomba* (Mérimée); *Contes des Romanciers Naturalistes*; Comfort's *Exercises in Composition*.

It will be noticed that no text is read until the second year of the college and normal course, that is, the fourth year of high school French. In the succeeding year, the programme of reading is greatly expanded and is on a level with the usual first year university schedule.

The examinations in the first and second years (grades XI and XII) are similar in form to that described in another chapter.

IV. THE PRINCE OF WALES COLLEGE

In the Prince of Wales College the enrolment is 180,

80, and 30 in the three years. French classes meet three times a week for 45 minutes in all years. The teaching follows in general the grammar-translation method, with as much oral work as the instructor can manage in view of examination requirements and large classes. What may be called the latinization of French teaching, noticed in the neighbouring provinces, obtains in Prince Edward Island, so that there is some emphasis on derivations and formal grammar.

ONTARIO

I. THE SCHOOLS

Secondary schools in Ontario are classified as collegiate institutes, high schools, and continuation schools. In this province the high school questionnaire was addressed to 386 schools, of which 314 replied; returns are nearly complete for collegiate institutes and high schools.

Language courses

The junior matriculation or middle school examination is regularly completed in four years, and the school course is extended for a fifth year leading to senior or honour matriculation, which is more generally known as the upper school examination. The full course in French requires, as a rule, 5 years; in German and Spanish, 4. Instruction is given in French for 5 years by 110 schools, for 4 years by 88 schools, and for 3 years by 98. Nearly all of the latter are continuation schools, which usually keep their pupils for 3 years only; but such schools often develop into high schools and many offer 4 years of the course before the change is accomplished.

German is taught for 4 years by 22 schools, for 3 years by 26 and for 2 or 1 year by 4 schools. Spanish is on the

curriculum of 7 city schools. As a rule a school gives the same range of instruction in Latin as in French.

Enrolment

Official returns for the year ending June 1926 show a total enrolment in secondary schools of nearly 79,000 with a percentage registration for the three languages of: French 71.5, German 2.5, and Latin 59.3. Returns from the high school questionnaire cover 59,000 pupils and give percentage figures as follows — French 82.7, German 3.41, Latin, 70.3. The discrepancy in Latin is probably accounted for by the inclusion in departmental statistics of returns from vocational schools where Latin is not studied. In the matter of French it is not so easy to reconcile the figures. The kindness of the statistician of the department of education made it possible to compare the H.S.Q. figures with the official returns for 20 high schools, when it was found that in all except 3 cases the total enrolment was slightly higher in the official figures; while in the majority of cases the total registration in French was slightly higher in the H.S.Q. statement. The difference was small enough to be insignificant in individual cases, but on the total would account for much of the variation in percentage enrolment. It has been suggested that the H.S.Q. figures, which were given in the fall of 1925, were based on actual attendance, while the official returns include all enrolments for the whole year, whether the pupils have attended or not.

Time-table

In collegiate institutes and high schools the duration of the school period is from 30 to 40 minutes. The number of weekly periods given to French is usually 5 in the first two years; this is the practice in 81 schools, but a large

group assign 4 periods and in scattered cases French classes meet 3 and 6 times a week.

In the second year the number of 5-period schools is greater than in the first, and in the third year over 100 schools report 5 periods while 25 have 6 or 7. The tabulation for the fourth year shows a further tendency to increase the number of periods, there being over 40 schools giving 6 and 7 per week. Continuation schools use a shorter period, 25 or 30 minutes, and have a weekly frequency of 4 in the first year, rising to 5 in the third.

Long hours and large classes are the lot of the collegiate language teacher. His week's class-room work averages 26 hours, and in 103 cases his average class exceeds 30. Twelve teachers report an average class of 41 or more, and 44 have returned a mean of 30 or less. In high schools the teaching week is $23\frac{1}{3}$ hours and the average class is between 20 and 30. In continuation schools conditions are easier in point of numbers, with an average week of $23\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and an average class below 20. Tabulation of returns for the numbers in the largest class taught by each teacher shows that 76 teachers in collegiates have to work with at least one group of 41 or more pupils; in high schools the largest class is usually between 30 and 40, and in continuation schools between 10 and 20.

Equipment

School libraries in Ontario are usually provided with sets of books for collective use in the class-room, either as supplementary reading material in the earlier years, or for practice in sight translation in the upper forms. The figures quoted indicate the total number of volumes, whether separate titles or sets of the same work.

Of the collegiate institutes, 5 report 200 volumes or more, 9 have from 100 to 200, 21 have less than 100, and

22 schools make no return. Sixty-four high schools own from 1 to 100 volumes in French; 6 have over 100, and 33 make no return. Of the 150 continuation schools reporting, about two-thirds possess up to a dozen books in French. Phonographs are available in 25 collegiates and 21 high schools, but only in a few cases are they used for language instruction.

II. THE TEACHERS

According to the H.S.Q., 460 teachers are engaged in modern language work in Ontario. In collegiate institutes 26% are men, in high schools 10.8% and in continuation schools 23.4%. Figures issued by the department of education show that the percentage of men teachers in all subjects is 46.6% in collegiate institutes and high schools and 27.4% in continuation schools.

Degrees and certificates

Of 169 teachers in collegiate institutes, 113 have the degree of B.A. with honours, 30 the pass B.A., and 22 the M.A. or other degree. In high schools there are 113 teachers with degrees, about equally divided between pass and honours, and 16 without degrees. Of 162 teachers in continuation schools, 19 have degrees. Among teachers of modern languages in collegiate institutes the specialists number 103 and high school assistants 61. In high schools the figures for the same groups are 37 and 85, while the great majority (143) of continuation school teachers have the provincial first class certificate; 19 of them are high school assistants.

Experience

It appears then that teachers in the collegiate institutes are, academically and professionally, a highly selected

body. In length of experience they have also a marked advantage over their colleagues in the same province and indeed throughout the Dominion. The average length of service is 12 years, as compared with 7 and 5 in the Ontario high and continuation schools. Nearly 10% of collegiate teachers making returns have 30 or more years of service to their credit. The mode of the distribution is between 9 and 12 years; in all other provinces it lies between 3 and 6, and in Ontario high and continuation schools, between 1 and 3 years.

Specialization

Specialization in language teaching is a marked feature of the high school system. Most of those holding specialist certificates, and a number of others not having that distinction, devote all or nearly all their time to French and German. The tabulation shows that one third of the language teachers in collegiate institutes and one-sixth of those in high schools give from 90 to 100 per cent. of their time to this subject; while very few instructors in the collegiates are teaching modern languages as a form subject. In continuation schools the reverse condition obtains, though a considerable group, 47 out of 148, devote 40 to 60% of their class-room hours to languages.

Duration of modern language study

A summary of the figures dealing with the length of time spent in directed study of the languages taught gives the following general results. Of language teachers in collegiate institutes, all have studied French, for an average of 8.65 years; more than 75% have an average of 6.15 years of German; rather less than 50% have done about 2½ years in Italian, and over 40% have studied Spanish for the same period. In most cases the last two

groups overlap. About 85% report an average of 6.2 years work in Latin. In the high schools the average length of study is shorter in French and German, owing to the smaller percentage of specialists, and fewer teachers are acquainted with Italian (20%) or Spanish (25%.) In continuation schools the average time reported is 5.05 years for French and 4.83 for Latin. Nineteen teachers have studied German for 3.15 years.

At the lower end of the scale it appears that a number of teachers of French have not pursued the study of it beyond the junior matriculation standard. In high schools and collegiate institutes there are 12 such cases, in continuation schools 50, or nearly one-third.

The record of foreign travel and study shows that 24 teachers have attended courses in Europe, and 15 in Quebec, for 6 months or less. Longer periods of study, in some cases aided by provincial scholarships, have been undertaken by 6 in Europe and 1 in Quebec. Sixty-six or one-seventh of those teaching languages have travelled in Europe.

Specialists

There are roughly 300 teachers of modern languages in the collegiate institutes and high schools; 140 of these hold the specialist's certificate, and their collective history is peculiarly interesting in that they form a select corps of teachers officially set apart for the work and devoting to it the major part of their time.

Details of required academic and professional training are stated in the chapter on teacher training.

Of the specialists now teaching in Ontario rather more than 11% are men.

Since the departmental regulations have changed from time to time, the general style of "specialist in modern

languages" includes a number of classifications: 47 are qualified in moderns and history, a combination no longer sanctioned, 27 in French and German, 21 in moderns, 10 in French and English, 11 in English and history with moderns option.¹

In length of experience specialists average 11.16 years.

About 25% of them give all their time, and 50% give more than three-quarters of their time to language work; 80% give more than half, and the rest less than half. These probably include teachers whose main work is in history and English.

No specialist reports French or German as his or her mother tongue. All were born in Canada. There are 5 French-speaking teachers in the high school system, but none of these are specialists, though some are doing full time work in the language.

In language study, the tabulations show: 135 specialists report an average of 9 years work in French; 126 have 6.5 years in German; 71 and 67 have 2.4 years in Italian and Spanish respectively, and 122 average 6 years in Latin.

More detailed examination of the figures shows: in French, 18 return 7 years or less, probably teachers in the history and English groups; 99 have from 8 to 10 years and 18 have 11 or more: in German the figures range from 1 to 12 years, with the mode at 6, and 43, or one-third reporting 8 or more. Italian and Spanish have a mode at 2 years, but a considerable number have continued to the fourth year, and a few record 5 or 6 years in Spanish. The mode for Latin is 5 years, but two-thirds have from 6 to 10 years study of this language.

European travel is reported by one-third, generally for 3 months or less, and study in Europe or Quebec by 35

¹This certificate included enough work in modern languages to qualify the holder as a language specialist. This is no longer the case.

specialists; 8 of these have spent one or more sessions at a French or German university.¹

Figures on the size of classes indicate that specialists take their full share of the elementary work: 54 record average classes of 31 or more, and 49 report an average of 30 or less. Forty-five have at least one class of 41 or more.

III. SYLLABUS

The department issues the following instructions.

FRENCH

*Lower School.*² The introductory *Grammars* and *Readers*, including introductory work in authors.

The work in French should at first be wholly without a text-book, for the training of the ear and the tongue. At the beginning the emphasis should be placed on oral work, care being taken to secure accurate pronunciation. This will lead to systematic study of sounds, though not necessarily nor preferably by means of phonetic transcription. The oral course should be graded, so that the pupil may be constantly increasing his knowledge of names of common objects, states and actions. Easy sight reading at this stage will lend interest to the work; and occasional exercises in dictation will assist the learner in word recognition. At this stage, too, simple points of grammar should be learned incidentally. After about two months of this work the *Grammar* should be used as a text-book; but throughout the course French should be

¹Since the above figures were collected, many Ontario teachers of French have attended the summer school established in Quebec by the Ontario department of education.

²In Ontario, forms I and II (grades IX and X) are known as the lower school, III and IV as the middle school, and form V the upper school.

used as far as possible by teacher and pupils as the medium of conversation.

The other modern languages should be begun in the same way. Where desirable, owing to local conditions, German may be begun first. But, as a general principle, no two modern languages should be begun in the same year.

In the lower school course at least 30 lessons of the *High School French Grammar* and 23 lessons of the *High School German Grammar* should be covered.

*Middle School.*¹ The courses in the lower school in grammar and composition continued.

The candidate's knowledge of French will be tested by: (1) simple questions on grammar; (2) the translation of simple passages from English into French; (3) translation at sight of easy passages from modern French, and (4) an examination on the following texts: the texts contained in the *New High School French Reader*. 1927: Daudet, *Le Petit Chose à l'école* (Blackie); Labiche, *Les Petits Oiseaux*. 1928: Audoux, *Marie Claire à Villevieille* (Clarendon Press); Labiche, *Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon*. 1929: Meilhac and Halévy, *L'Eté de la Saint-Martin*; Theuriet, *L'Abbé Daniel* (Blackie's Longer French Texts).

*Upper School.*² The prescription of work in grammar, the translation of English into French, and sight translation, is the same for honours as for pass, but the examination will be of a more advanced character. The continuous passages of English for translation into French will be based on the prescribed texts.

The following are the prescribed texts: 1927: Bordeaux, *La Maison* (Heath); Labiche et Martin, *La Poudre aux yeux*. 1928: Mérimée, *Colomba* (Macmillan); Augier et Sandeau, *Le Gendre de Monsieur Poirier* (Macmillan).

¹This is the prescription for junior matriculation.

²Fifth year, or senior (honour) matriculation.

1929: Erckmann-Chatrian, *Madame Thérèse*: Labiche, *La Grammaire*.

Two papers will be set (1) prescribed texts and translation at sight; questions on grammar; (2) the translation of English into French.

GERMAN

Lower School. See prescription for French for lower school.

Middle School. The candidate's knowledge of German will be tested by: (1) simple questions on grammar; (2) the translation of simple passages from English into German; (3) translation at sight of easy passages from modern German; and (4) an examination on the following texts:—The texts contained in the *High School German Reader* with the exception of Von Fallersleben, *Deutschland über Alles*. 1927: Storm, *Immensee*; Fulda, *Unter vier Augen*. 1928: Arnold, *Fritz auf Ferien*: Ebner-Eschenbach, *Krambambuli*; Benedix, *Der Prozess*. 1929: Gerstäcker, *Germelshausen*; Benedix, *Eigensinn*.

Upper School. The prescription of work in grammar, the translation of English into German and sight translation, is the same for honours as for pass, but the examination will be of a more advanced character. The continuous passages of English for translation into German will be based on the prescribed texts.

The following texts are prescribed: 1927: Rosegger, *Der Lex von Gutenhag*; Freytag, *Die Journalisten*; Collmann, *Easy German Poetry*, pp. 1-52 (Ginn). 1928: Baumbach, *Der Schwiegersohn*; Rosen, *Ein Knopf*, and Müller, *Im Wartesalon erster Klasse*, from *Four German Comedies*, (Ginn); Collmann, *Easy German Poetry*, pp. 52-107 (Ginn). 1929: Moser, *Der Bibliothekar*; Storm, *In St. Jürgen*; Frommel, *Eingeschneit*.

SPANISH

Lower School. See the prescription for French for lower school.

Middle School. The candidate's knowledge of Spanish will be tested by: (1) questions on grammar; (2) the translation of sentences and connected narrative from English into Spanish; (3) composition in Spanish; (4) translation at sight from Spanish; (5) an examination on the following texts:—1927: Benavente, *El Príncipe que todo lo aprendió en los libros* (World Book Co.); Hills and Cano, *Cuentos y leyendas* (Heath). 1928, 1929: Hills and Cano, *Cuentos y leyendas* (Heath); Selgas, *La Mariposa blanca* (Heath).

Upper School. The prescription of work in grammar, the translation of English into Spanish, and sight translation, is the same for honours as for pass, but the examination will be of a more advanced character.

The following texts are prescribed: 1927: Ramos Carrión y Aza, *Zaragüeta* (Silver, Burdett); Azorín, *Las Confesiones* (Heath). 1928: Pardo Bazán, *El tesoro de Gastón* (Holt); Ramos Carrión y Aza, *Zaragüeta* (Silver Burdett). 1929: Azorín, *Las Confesiones* (Heath); Alarcón, *El Capitán Veneno* (Holt).

ITALIAN

Lower School. See prescription for French for lower school.

Middle School. The candidate's knowledge of Italian will be tested by: (1) questions on grammar, (2) the translation of sentences and connected narrative from English into Italian, (3) translation at sight from Italian, (4) an examination on the following texts: 1927: Bowen, *Italian Reader* (Heath); Goldoni, *La Locandiera* (Heath). 1928: Bowen, *Italian Reader* (Heath); Goldoni, *Il vero*

amico (Heath). 1929: De Amicis, *Cuore* (Heath); Goldoni, *La Locandiera* (Heath).

Upper School. The prescription of work in grammar, the translation of English into Italian, and sight translation, is the same for honours as for pass, but the examination will be of a more advanced character.

The following are the prescribed texts:—1927, 1928: Wilkins and Altrocchi, *Italian Short Stories* (Heath); Fogazzaro, *Peregrinatus Rochus* (Heath). 1929: Wilkins and Marinoni, *L'Italia* (University of Chicago Press); Wilkins and Altrocchi, *Italian Short Stories* (Heath).

The content of the syllabus in French must be considered in relation to the yearly enrolment figures. Table 83 of the *Annual Survey of Education*, 1925, shows that in June of that year there were 31,805 pupils in the lower school (Forms I and II) and 15,178 in the middle school (Forms III and IV) of Ontario high schools and collegiate institutes; and the high school questionnaire indicates that 47.5% of pupils beginning French reach the third year of the course. Roughly then, one pupil out of two leaves school after two years; at the end of that time he has spent about 200 class-room hours in French, and it is pertinent to ask what has been accomplished. The official minimum is 30 exercises of the *High School French Grammar*, two months of oral instruction, and the little reading that can be done from the *Reader* and from books owned by the school and handed out for use in class. The vocabulary used in the 30 exercises of the *Grammar* is less than 500 words, and the pupil is far from having a recognition knowledge of the general grammatical structure of the language, even if he has been effectively drilled in a few points of examinational utility; for instance “la fameuse règle des participes.”

The actual practice of the best schools goes beyond the recommended minimum, but is handicapped by the rigorous limitation of the books that may be prescribed for purchase.

The following schedules of first and second year work are probably representative of the practice of the best collegiate institutes.

School A.

1st year. Oral work: based on vocabulary of classroom, home, weather, clothing, numerals. Renouf's *Oral Lessons* are used for reading and translation. Fifty pages of Méras, *Le Premier Livre*, are read, and half a dozen songs memorized and sung. Dent's Wall Pictures are used as a basis for oral work. The oral and reading exercise take up 75% of the time; the rest is devoted to written work based on the *Grammar*, lessons I-XXI.

2nd year. Less oral work: extension of vocabulary: lessons on map of France: topics of the day, *La Patrie*, a French daily paper from Montreal: reading and translation. *Le Premier Livre*, *Petits Contes*, songs. Three poems memorized; six easy selections from *High School French Reader*; *Grammar* to lesson XXXV, regular verbs, and 15 irregular.

3rd and 4th years. This school keeps up its oral work and continues the practice of memorization, but in reduced quantity. The *Reader* is completed and supplemented by stories for sight translation: a little free composition is done. The prescribed texts are studied.

School B.

1st year. Practical phonetic training: 10 lessons from the *Grammar*, with further teaching of simple tenses and past indefinite of regular verbs: a reflexive verb: principal

parts of verbs: reading and translation of simple material to illustrate grammar as taught: oral practice and memorization of poems: dictation: conversation on the above material.

2nd year. Review of phonetics: review of verbs: compound tenses of verbs, including neuter and reflexive, irregular verbs as met in texts, *Grammar* to lesson XXIII: reading and translation of 25 pages of the *High School French Reader*, with current verb study: oral work on texts read, dictation, memorization.

3rd year. Continued emphasis on verbs: translation into French of sentences and continuous passages based on texts read: reading and translation: oral work on the texts: introduction to free composition: memorization.

4th year. More stress on translation into French: the matriculation texts: oral composition, dictation.

From replies to the selected teachers' questionnaire the following summary has been compiled: it is probably representative of what is done in most collegiate institutes, but cannot be taken as indicating the procedure in schools without specialists.

1st year. As a rule the practice is to do only a small quantity of grammar in the first year; fifteen or sixteen exercises is a common amount while very few do more than twenty. One school goes as high as thirty, but in this case the matriculation syllabus is regularly covered in three years. In addition to the work in grammar provincial regulations call for an introductory course of elementary phonetic and oral instruction covering the first few weeks of the school year. In some cases this instruction is continued or supplemented by the use of direct method texts for beginners, while other schools use collections of easy stories or made-up reading material; others again appear to use no text book in the first year except the grammar.

Some teachers mention special instruction in verb forms, finding it necessary, for reading purposes, to anticipate the presentation of tenses and common irregular verbs as found in the *Grammar*. Where reading texts are reported in this year, the amount varies, usually being about 30 pages, but occasionally going as high as 80. The supplementary books listed are bought in sets by the school and can be used only in the class-room. They include, Guerber, *Contes et Légendes*, Curtis and Robert, *Oral Lessons in French*, Méras, *Premier Livre de Français*, *Petits Contes de France*, Longmans' *First Reader*, and others.

2nd year. In the second year the work begins to take a definite trend toward the provincial examination schedule. The study of grammar does not, as a rule, go beyond the first thirty-three lessons. The *High School French Reader* is begun with a usual prescription of some twenty-five pages, and further reading is done from the texts already studied in the first year.

3rd year. In the third year there is a greater uniformity of programme. About forty lessons are covered in the *Grammar*, with a small group going as far as lesson 51. The *H.S. Reader* is usually completed in this year, and there are isolated cases of schools doing further supplementary reading, partly with a view to training in sight translation. Sixty pages of such material is the highest figure reported. In one case a text dealing with French life is mentioned.

4th year. In the fourth year the examination schedule makes for uniformity. Practically all teachers cover the first 51 lessons in the *Grammar*, a few go as far as number 60, and two complete the book, presumably in special classes where senior matriculation is undertaken in the fourth year.

The texts read are those prescribed for examination, supplemented by special work in sight reading. This extra material is now fairly difficult, and the amount covered runs up to 100 pages. There is one mention of a text on French life, and one teacher reports sight reading from stories of the French Revolution, such as Balzac's *Un épisode sous la terreur*.

5th year. Without exception the whole of the grammar book is studied, but there is little supplementary reading.

It has been suggested that the Ontario high schools do not, considering the four years given to the preparation of junior matriculation French, cover sufficient ground. In the school year of 1925-26, Mr. E. G. Savage of the English Board of Education, was acting as exchange inspector in the province. His impression of the work is expressed as follows:

"In the languages, Latin and French, the rate of progress, considering the age of the pupils, is slow. The writer desires to avoid comparisons but in this case it must be said that progress is slower than under any other system with which he is acquainted. The many periods during which accidence and syntax alone are studied are so long drawn out that pupils lose interest in the subjects (the expression commonly used is that they "find them hard", but it means much the same thing). It is suggested that in both cases reading of real texts should be begun much sooner, and that less time should be spent on laboriously working through exercises in which it is very difficult to find any real interest. They become a succession of tests of the ability to juggle with case endings and verb forms, but if these are not constantly encountered in the live words of a real author, they become obliterated in the

memory and no real appreciation of their use is retained by the time actual reading is begun.”¹

Teachers' opinions

Interesting opinions have been recorded by Ontario teachers on the departmental examinations. Most of them favour the existing system of setting translation from prescribed books. One or two, to whose opinion much consideration should be given, regard any departure from the system as a dangerous experiment in the present state of linguistic instruction. They believe that many teachers would be at a loss when confronted with the problem of teaching pupils to read the language in general (*i.e.* to prepare for an examination in sight translation or comprehension) and that a definite objective encourages the weaker pupils. In short, it is believed that as things are, the examination should attempt to measure nothing beyond what the average teacher has succeeded in imparting to the average pupil. Doubt as to the advisability of doing away with set books is not confined to Ontario: other teachers in Canada are equally hesitant, and in England, where examinations in modern languages rarely or never deal with prescribed books, complaint is often made that the method leads to “complete neglect of literature as such, and the infliction of a starvation diet of snippets”.²

A common objection raised is that the provincial syllabus and examinations do not set a definite objective. Some teachers are obsessed with the desire to teach their pupils to speak the language and complain that the system

¹Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario, for the year 1926. Toronto, 1927. p. 31.

²The Position of French in Grant-Aided Secondary Schools in England, London, 1926, p. 33.

gives no encouragement in this direction. "So long," writes a teacher of high accomplishment and long experience, "as there is no test of understanding and speaking a foreign language, so long as there is such tremendous stress laid upon *written* examinations in June, just so long will the teacher be thwarted in his or her legitimate ambitions for the pupils." Another points out that the practice of taking matriculation piecemeal concentrates attention on the subject taken first, and accentuates the stagnation so often found in first and second year French, the examination in which is generally deferred to the later years.

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

Thirty teachers were observed in 11 schools in Ontario: 10 of these teachers were specialists, 2 were bilingual: 6 had studied in Europe and 6 in Quebec. The lessons observed include 3 in German and 2 in Spanish. Command of the language taught was reported to be excellent in 3 cases, good in 8, fair in 6, and poor in 3. Types of lesson observed were: grammar 11, translation 8, conversation 7, reading 5. The degree of success achieved by the teacher was estimated by the investigator as excellent in 5 lessons, good in 11, fair in 5, and poor in 3. Pupils' interest was sometimes greater than the estimated skill of the teacher, for the observer reports it as excellent in 7 classes, good in 5, fair to poor in 8. It was found that 11 teachers were qualified to use the direct method, but several regretted that examination requirements reduced their usage of it to small proportions. Formal grammar is regularly taught in English; in all lessons considerable attention is given to pronunciation by the majority of teachers under observation, but success in this respect is not, as a rule, very great, the quality of pupils' pronun-

ation being rated as excellent in 2 classes, good in 5, fair in 3, and poor in 8. Teachers were found to be very careful in inculcating the correct use of English in all work connected with the language lessons.

Phonetic instruction usually takes the form of imitation of the teacher, but drill with symbols, memorization of vowel groups, and syllabification exercises were noted in a few cases.

Little is done in the direction of interesting pupils in French life and thought, though one teacher employs "realia" such as coins and post-cards. The better pupils in bilingual districts sometimes make use of the out-of-class opportunities that arise, but in general such opportunities are neglected.

Free composition, sight translation, dictation and collateral reading are reported to be rarely employed. Information from other sources, however, indicates that considerable practice is given in sight translation.

Typical summaries of the observer's impressions of individual classes may be quoted:—

Lessons dragged—time lost and little accomplished because too much attempted: pupils not in the habit of setting given words in original phrases.

Grammar lesson full of difficulties—quotation of rules, etc.—an excellent lesson by an able teacher.

Translation and grammar—French spoken in class, rather to the surprise of pupils—teacher mispronounced—little learned.

German lesson conducted entirely in German.

Poor lessons in French, which in this school is dropped by third year pupils and resumed in fourth year.

Excellent lesson by teacher who cultivates habit of reflection in her pupils; however, spoken French sacrificed to grammar.

Oral lesson—two thirds of the class did nothing and were silent all the time—poor pedagogy.

Good direct method conversation lesson—phonetic symbols—careful attention to sounds.

QUEBEC

The teaching of French in Quebec is discussed on pages 489-519. For reference is here added:—

THE SYLLABUS

Grade III. Curtis & Robert, Part I (Optional).

Grade IV. Curtis & Robert, Parts I and II; or, Curtis & Robert, Part II (City Schools).

Grade V. Curtis & Robert, Part III.

Grade VI. Curtis & Robert, Part IV.

Grade VII. Curtis & Robert, Part IV, pp. 22 to end, and Part V, or (for City Schools) Curtis & Robert, Part V.

Grade VIII. Curtis & Robert, Part V, page 29 to the end, and part of Part VI.

Grade IX. I. (a) For intensive work:—Berthon's *Grammar*, sections 43-85; 89-104; 109-113; 180-201, with review of verbs used in preceding years. Omit sections 53, 61, 62, 80. Dent's *First Exercises* (corresponding exercises to sections of *Grammar* studied); (b) For reading and discussion: *Criquette* (Modern Language Press), or, II. Robert, Part VI.

Grade X. (a) For intensive work:—Berthon's *Grammar*, sections 61-62; 86-88; 98-148; 165-233. Review of previous year's work; Dent's *First Exercises*, corresponding exercises; *Le Trésor du Vieux Seigneur* (Dent); (b) For reading and discussion: *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon*.

Grade XI. (a) For intensive work: Berthon's *Grammar*, complete; Dent's *First Exercises*; *Les Braves Gens* (Hachette). (b) For reading and discussion: Daudet, *Les Quatre Contes Choisis*.

SASKATCHEWAN

THE HIGH SCHOOLS

Returns were received from all the 23 high schools in the province and from a large percentage of the 250 continuation schools in which modern languages are taught. Conditions in these two groups of schools will be treated separately.

I. THE SCHOOLS

Language courses

Nineteen schools offer 4 years of French and Latin, leading to senior matriculation: 3 give only 3 years, and 1 reports 5 years, but gives no data of enrolment in the last year. German is taught by 5 schools, usually as a 4 year course.

Enrolment

High school questionnaire figures show a total enrolment of nearly 6,000 in October 1925, of whom approximately 5,100, or 86%, are taking French, and 3,700, or 63%, Latin; 33 pupils are registered in German. Official statistics for the preceding year give an approximate total of 6,700, with 4,900 in French, 100 in German and 3,600 in Latin. Saskatchewan appears to be peculiarly fortunate in what may be called its survival ratio; of 100 pupils who begin French, 85 reach the second year, 61 the third, and no less than 43 the fourth, or senior matriculation. Only Manitoba has a higher ratio for the third year, and no province approaches the percentage of fourth year survival. There appears to be a certain loss in French classes that is not due to the pupils leaving school altogether; the last published figures show 2,078 in first year high school, 1,859 in second, 1,828 in third and 991 in fourth; that is,

about 80% and 48% respectively reach the 3rd and 4th years. This is an even higher proportion than the survival ratio in French.

Time-table

The usual length of the school period is 33 to 37 minutes. These limits cover the returns given by 15 schools: 4 report 30 minutes, and 3 have 40 or 45 minutes. The number of French periods shows greater variation: in the first year 12 schools have 3 periods, 6 have 4, and 1 uses as many as 7. In the second year the mode stands at 4 periods, in the third at 5. One school gives as many as 10 weekly periods of 30 minutes for French and the same for Latin. Two schools have only 3 periods in the last two years, and 6 have 4 periods. The commonest arrangement is to begin with 3 periods of 35 minutes in the first year, increasing the number to 4 in the second and 5 in the third and fourth. The teacher's week usually varies from 39 to 45 periods of 35 minutes. The heaviest load reported is 47 periods of 40 minutes, and the mode is 45 periods of 30 or 35 minutes. Classes are large; of 33 teachers reporting, 17 have an average language group of 31 or more pupils, while 5 have over 40. In the largest classes, 19 teachers have over 40 pupils.

II. THE TEACHERS

Modern languages are taught in the Saskatchewan high schools by 26 women and 10 men. Eleven of these hold the degree of B.A. with honours, 19 without; 5 have the master's degree and one is a Ph.D. Teaching qualifications are about equally divided between the collegiate, high school and first class certificates. Professional certificates are: collegiate, 9; high school, 10; first class, 16.

Experience

Teaching experience averages 8.6 years, with the mode between 3 and 6 years, including one third of the cases; another third lies between 6 and 12, and no teachers report more than 21 years of service.

Specialization

Full time work in languages is done by 3 teachers, and 9 others give 70 per cent. or more of their time to them. About one quarter of those reporting appear to be teaching French as a routine subject.

Duration of modern language study

The record of academic training in languages shows all except 4 to have five or more years of directed study in French, while 20 report seven years or more. About half the teachers have some knowledge of German, though only 8 have carried the work beyond the high school stage. Spanish and Italian are mentioned in only 3 cases, and 75% of the teachers have studied Latin, 12 in high school, and 16 in school and university.

Foreign travel is reported by 15 teachers, and 4 have studied in Europe, for 7 months or longer, and 3 others have attended summer schools in Europe or in Quebec. In the course of such study 2 teachers have qualified for the *certificat d'études supérieures*. Secondary education in Great Britain is mentioned by 4 of the group; 1 was brought up to speak Gaelic and 1 Icelandic.

III. THE SYLLABUS

FRENCH

Grade IX. The first lessons should be taught without a text. In all grades emphasis should be placed upon oral work. Care should be taken to secure accuracy of pro-

nunciation. Names of common objects in the home, in the school, on the farm, etc. should receive attention. Occasional exercises in dictation for word recognition.

Lessons I to XX inclusive of the prescribed text. Conjugation of the following model verbs of the regular conjugations: *parler, finir, vendre*; also of *avoir* and *être*.

Text: *Ontario High School French Grammar*, revised edition (Copp, Clark). Reference Texts: *Oral Lessons in French*, Parts I, II, III, (Renouf). For supplementary reading the following is prescribed but its use is optional: *Mes Premiers Pas en Français*, Chapuzet and Daniels (Heath).

Grade X. Work of grade IX continued. Lessons I to XXXV inclusive of the prescribed text. Increased attention to oral work and conversation exercises. Conjugation of the more common irregular verbs.

Text: the same *Grammar*. Reference Texts: *Oral Lessons in French*, Parts IV and V. For supplementary reading the following are prescribed but their use is optional: *Scènes Canadiennes*, Müller (Copp, Clark); *Contes Faciles*, Roth (Allyn & Bacon); *Mes Premiers pas en Français*, Chapuzet and Daniels (Heath).

Grade XI. Grammar and composition involving a knowledge of Lessons I to LII inclusive of the prescribed text; dictation. The following irregular verbs should be carefully studied: *aller, faire, dire, prendre, pouvoir, mettre, savoir, vouloir, voir, venir, lire, mourir*.

Text: the same *Grammar*.

Reading and conversational exercises. Careful study of the selections annually prescribed. Sight translation.

Grade XII. Grammar and composition based upon the prescribed text; dictation.

Text: the same *Grammar*.

Reading and conversation exercises. Careful study of the selections annually prescribed. Sight translation

GERMAN

Grade IX. Lessons I to XX inclusive, of the prescribed text.

Text: *High School German Grammar* (Copp, Clark).
Supplementary Reader (optional): *Geschichten und Märchen*, Foster (Heath).

Grade X. Lessons I to XL inclusive of the prescribed text. Supplementary reading from texts from time to time prescribed. Conversation exercises. Dictation.

Texts: the same, and *German Poems* (Copp, Clark).

Grade XI. Grammar and composition based upon the prescribed *Grammar*.

Reading and conversation exercises. Careful study of the selections annually prescribed. Sight translation.

For Supplementary Reading (not required for examination): *German Poems* (Copp, Clark).

Grade XII. Grammar and composition.

Text: the same *Grammar*.

Reading and conversation exercises. Careful study of the selections annually prescribed.

This syllabus attaches considerable importance to oral work throughout the course, but, as noted in the chapter on examinations, there is no departmental test of the ability to speak or even understand. Optional material is listed for supplementary reading in the earlier years and in some cases as much as 200 pages are read in grades IX and X. German is scheduled to begin in the first high school year, and the grammar is covered in outline in two years. Provision is made for supplementary reading and oral practice.

IV. CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

Five schools were visited in Saskatchewan, and 8 teachers interviewed or observed in their class-rooms.

Most of the work consisted of translation or grammar lessons; teachers were reported to be fairly skilful in the method employed, and the interest of classes on the whole well maintained. Large classes and a heavy programme interfere with the oral work, which is usually abandoned or greatly reduced after the first or second year. One teacher, however, gave an excellent demonstration of the direct method as applied to the work in hand; about half the teachers observed were found to have a good or fair command of the language, but in general the teaching of pronunciation receives insufficient attention and is, with one exception, effected by imitation of the teacher. Except in one class the pupils' pronunciation was only fair or poor. Nothing is done in free composition, little in sight translation or dictation.

Teachers' opinions

Replies to the special teacher questionnaire agree with the observer's impressions as to the difficulties imposed by crowded classes and the pressure of the provincial syllabus; one respondent emphasizes the irregularity of classification and the burden of administrative details. Estimates of the division of time between grammar and other processes vary somewhat for the early years, but agree in stating that four-fifths of the teaching time is taken up by grammar and translation in the senior years. Written work figures largely in the class-period, accounting for half the time in the last two years; in homework it is even more prominent. Replies to the questionnaire suggest that phonetic instruction is more frequent than the report on class-room visits indicates. One teacher uses aural comprehension tests at intervals, and applies oral tests four times in the first year, and thereafter at longer intervals.

THE CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

I. THE SCHOOLS

Much of the secondary instruction in Saskatchewan is carried on in the continuation schools. The following figures summarize the reports received from 148, or about three-fifths, of these schools.

The languages taught are French, Latin and, to a small extent, German. These languages are offered usually as a three year course; a fourth year is given by 20 schools in French and Latin, and by 3 out of the 11 that teach German.

Enrolment is well distributed through the four years of instruction. French pupils are 1,351 in the first year, 1,077 in the second, 855 in the third, 190 in the fourth. Including 28 French-speaking students from the Gravelbourg district, the total is 3,501. The survival percentage is high, 80, 63, 14 respectively for the second and following years. German has an enrolment of 151 and Latin of 2,356.

There is much diversity in the time-table. Periods run from 15 to 75 minutes; 44 schools have 30 minutes, 18 have 20, 12 have 45, and 8 use a period of one hour. The weekly time allotted to French is, on the average, 94 minutes in the first year and 124 in the third. As in the case of the Ontario continuation schools, these times are well below those of the larger schools in the same province. The norm for the western provinces is about 3 hours in each year.

Figures on the weekly teaching load are confused by the inclusion of returns from those doing only part time work in the secondary grades; the mode gives 41-50 periods of 30 minutes; one teacher reports 125 periods of 12 minutes. It was impossible to determine the average size of classes, but it can be inferred that they are in

general very small, since only 13 schools have more than 20 pupils in first year French, and 115 schools have 20 or less. In the third year 97 schools have 10 or less.

Modern language books are owned by 61 schools, but only 5 have over 25 volumes. One school in a bilingual community has a library of 670 titles. Ten schools take periodicals or daily papers in French or German, and 7 have phonographs; 3 use French discs.

II. THE TEACHERS

Of 145 teachers in the continuation schools, 95 are men, 46 hold the pass B.A. degree and 20 the honour B.A., 12 have other degrees. Professional certificates are:—high school assistant, 50; first class, 74.

The average of teaching experience is 8.7 years, against 8.6 in the high schools; 39 teachers report 3-5 years and 52 have 6-11. The origins and education of this group of teachers show an interesting variety; 15 of them do not speak English as their mother tongue, and 26 received their secondary education outside the Dominion; 16 were brought up in Great Britain. Seven languages and 6 countries are represented. The average length of directed study is: French 5.3 years, for 141 teachers; German 4.1 years for 33 teachers; Latin, 4.44 years for 105. Those reporting 4 years or less are: in French 59, in German 18, in Latin 59. A few record one or two years of Italian or Spanish. A large proportion of teachers in these schools have travelled and studied; 29 have been in Europe for varying periods, and 11 have carried on their studies there, 7 of them for half a year or more.

FRENCH IN THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS OF QUEBEC

“The object is to train pupils to speak, read and write the French language with ease and accuracy. It is scarcely

necessary to dwell upon the necessity of a thorough knowledge of French as a spoken language, in the Province of Quebec."¹

The insistence, in the above quotation, on the spoken language, and the fact that it is addressed in the first place to elementary teachers, mark the essential points in which the teaching of French in Quebec differs from the teaching of French in other parts of the Dominion. In this province French is taught with oral ability as primary objective, and instruction is begun at least four years before the pupil passes out of the elementary school.

Organization

Schools under the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction are classified as elementary, intermediate, and high schools; they teach respectively seven, nine, and eleven grades. The secondary grades are not as a rule housed in a separate building. French is an obligatory subject from the 4th grade onwards, and may be introduced in city schools in the 3rd. If half the children in grade III are taking French, there are about 38,000 pupils in French in the elementary grades, and about 7,000 in the secondary. Secondary pupils are divided among the four grades roughly in the proportion 40, 30, 20, 10. In elementary and intermediate schools instruction is generally given by the regular grade teachers; in some high schools the work of the secondary grades is entrusted to one or more specialists,² who may also exercise supervision over the French teaching of their

¹*Manual respecting the Course of Study in the Protestant Elementary Schools of the Province of Quebec*; Department of Public Instruction, Quebec, 1923.

²Specialist standing is granted to linguistically qualified teachers after a short summer course in language and method. See chapter on teacher training, page 593.

colleagues in the lower grades. The training of specialists and others is described in the chapter on Teacher Training.

The teaching of French in high schools outside Montreal is under the control of a supervisor, who travels from school to school advising and organizing, and from time to time conducting oral examinations. In Montreal there is a supervisor who is more specifically concerned with instruction in the elementary grades. The functions of these officers are discussed in more detail below.

The Teachers

A general impression of the qualifications of teachers may be gained by summarizing the returns from the High School Questionnaire. For the school year ending in June, 1926, there are reports from 81 teachers in high schools engaged in giving instruction in French. About a quarter of these are men; rather less than half hold university degrees; 24 have high school certificates, 25 intermediate and 3 elementary. Of these teachers 30 have also the specialist's certificate. In the intermediate schools, 78 teachers made returns, all except 6 being women. There are 6 university graduates in these schools; 4 have high school certificates, 38 intermediate and 28 elementary.

Experience and Academic Training

In length of teaching experience the teachers in Quebec high schools are on a level with those in other provinces, with an average service of approximately 11 years; in the intermediate schools this falls to slightly over 6 years, as compared with rather less than 5 in Ontario continuation schools.

Most significant of the returns on teachers' qualifica-

ations are those giving the number of years of directed study in the languages taught. Of 67 high school teachers reporting under this head, 12 have 6 years or less, 30 have 7 or 8, and 13 have 9 or more. Now the majority of these returns include four years of elementary school work, so that the mode of the distribution works out at 5 to 6 years of secondary or higher study for teachers in high schools. In comparing these figures with those for other provinces full account must be taken of the oral training gained in the primary and secondary years, and it must be remembered that a large number of Quebec teachers with no more than high and normal school training are, orally, better qualified than some university graduates in provinces offering less linguistic opportunities. No less than 18 of the teachers reporting put down French as their mother tongue.

In the article of travel and study abroad, it is found that 24 have travelled for longer or shorter periods, 5 have studied for the equivalent of one or more academic years, and 6 have attended shorter courses.

Conditions of Teaching

The questionnaire gave a wide range of figures in the matter of teaching hours and size of classes. About 40 periods of 30 minutes seems to be the commonest working week, but several entries show as many as 100 periods of 15 minutes, while at the other extreme appear records of 20 periods of 60 or even 75 minutes. It appears that there is little uniformity of time-table arrangements, and the returns are further complicated by the inclusion of figures referring to both primary and secondary grades.

Teachers in Quebec are not often hampered by the elsewhere too common disadvantage of overcrowded classes. The mode of the returns under "average class" is

between 20 and 30 in the high school, and of those under "largest class", between 30 and 40. In the intermediate schools the size of the secondary grades gives ample scope for individual oral work. Out of 21 teachers making returns, 16 have an average French class of less than 10 pupils and none have more than 20 in any class.

Methods of Teaching

Teaching methods are carefully organized with two points in view: firstly, the public demands that its children be taught to speak French, and, secondly, this demand must be satisfied by a corps of teachers who have for the most part no special training in the language itself and little in the methods of teaching it. The solution of this double problem has been found in the exact prescription of work and method, grade by grade, controlled by as much expert supervision as is economically possible.

Elementary Grades

The Reader and the Teacher's Manual

The text-book used in the elementary grades is Curtis and Robert, *Oral Lessons in French*. This is printed in seven parts, the first five of which are designed for junior pupils. Corresponding to each part is a *Teacher's Manual*, describing in great detail the devices and procedure to be used in presenting each lesson; but it is strongly impressed on teachers that this manual is a guide rather than a book of rules. In practice there are of course teachers who "teach the book" of the direct method, as there are those who order "learn the next lesson" in the grammatical method.

The aims and principles of the *Oral Lessons* are clearly set forth in the preface to the *Manual*.

SUBJECT MATTER. The vocabulary selected for these lessons relates to home and school life, enabling the pupils, as they advance, to express in French the ideas with which they are most familiar. This language of current speech constitutes the best foundation for further studies, practical or literary.

PRESENTATION. In presenting new words or phrases the teacher aims to give a clear impression of a fragment of the living language. To this end the carefully selected material is arranged in systematic order and presented in related sentences. New elements in these sentences are explained by means of objects, pictures, gesture and other devices indicated in the *Manual*. Passages which do not lend themselves to such interpretation are frankly translated to avoid all possibility of misunderstanding.

PRACTICE. The constructions used repeatedly by the teacher in the presentation become models for the pupils in their efforts at oral and written composition, which, from the first, is an essential part of this work. By means of questions and other devices suggested in the *Manual* the pupils are led to practise the use of the material presented from day to day, combining it with that previously acquired in an ever growing network of speech, fully understood and accurately practised.

The following extracts from the *Manual* and the *Oral Lessons* indicate more clearly than a general description the method followed. They are the component parts of the first section of chapter V of part I; that is to say about half-way through the first year's work, in grade III of city schools.

CHAPTER V.

*Ins.*¹ In this chapter the pupils use the definite article with the names of: vegetables, fruits, birds and animals, changing in the exercise "un" to "le" or "l," "une" to "la" or "l."

Ce and *cette* are presented and practised. A fair amount of review is provided for; other unfinished work, especially on the sounds, should be continued, as occasion offers.

As the work of each section is finished the corresponding section of the *Reader* should be taken up.

I

Objects; Pencils, books, exercise books and papers, each group showing several of the colours: red, green, yellow, grey, white, black, blue and brown.

(a) *Sts.* Voici des crayons de différentes couleurs (several, one of each color). *Ce* crayon est rouge. (indicating the red one). — bleu. — brun, etc.

Ins. Make similar statements with "livres", "cahiers", and "papiers", using the known adjectives of color, especially brun, and pausing to drill the class on the *æ* sound, if necessary.

(b) *Gr.* Tell the class that "ce" (this or that) is used to specify a particular object, when there are two or more of the same kind.

(c) *Inc. Sts.* *Ce* crayon (livre, cahier, papier) est — (the pupils giving the color. Drill.)

(d) *Qs.* De quelle couleur est ce cahier? — livre? — papier? — crayon? (Taking one group of objects at a time, indicate one object of the group with each question).

Ans. *Ce* cahier (etc.) est gris. — brun. etc. (Drill).

¹Throughout the *Manual* similar abbreviations are used: *Ins.* = instructions, *Sts.* = statements, *Gr.* = grammar, *Inc. Sts.* = incomplete statements, *Rn.* = oral reproduction, *Cd.* = command.

(Presenting several to a pupil) Quel cahier, (livre, crayon,) est rouge? — bleu? etc. *Ans.* (Pointing it out) Ce cahier est rouge, etc.

Est-ce que je prends le crayon (cahier, livre, papier) blanc ou le cahier jaune? — le livre noir ou le livre bleu? etc. Où est-ce que je mets le papier rouge? — le cahier bleu? etc.

The corresponding section of the *Reader* is as follows. It has the phonetic script on the opposite page.

Cinquième Chapitre.

I.

Un crayon est noir, bleu ou rouge. Mon crayon est noir. Le crayon de Mademoiselle est bleu. Le papier de ce livre est blanc. Le tableau de la classe est noir. Un point blanc est sur le tableau noir et un point noir est sur le papier blanc.

Le panier de la classe est brun. Vous mettez le panier sous le grand pupitre.

Last year of Elementary School

Part V, which is taken up in the last year of the elementary school, prepares for the transition to high school French. There is an important statement in the preface:

"The treatment of the material of Part V prepares the way for that type of intensive study of short texts which has been advocated during the last seven years at the Quebec Provincial Summer School for Teachers of French.

This work involves preparatory oral explanations and practice of new words; reading, translation and questions on the text; the use of series for the practice of verb inflections; inductive methods of grammar study and some systematic grouping of words for the special study of sounds, derivations, meanings," etc.

Section I of Part V is a good example of grammatical presentation and the controlled oral composition that plays such a large part in this system. Teachers' instructions and pupils' material are here reproduced in outline.

SECTION I

Aim; To introduce the continuous past.

Material; Wall Sheet No. 6. "Oral Lessons in French."

Ins. The object of the first part of the lesson is to obtain by questions and answers a description in the present tense of the picture that is before the class.

Each statement should contain, as far as possible, a different verb which will immediately be written on the BB. in tabulated form so as to appear eventually as given below (BB.). The new forms will naturally appear one by one on the blackboard during the course of the lesson.

Qs. & Ans. (1) Que représente ce tableau? — Il représente une famille., etc.—9 items.

With the help of the tabulated verbs, the pupils will now be asked to reproduce all the statements suggested previously, and a description of the picture will be given by the class, a different sentence being supplied by a different pupil.

This description will begin at the Cd.: Dites-moi ce que vous voyez maintenant.

Rn. Nous voyons devant nous un tableau. 1. Il représente une famille. 2. Cette famille se compose de six personnes. 3. Le père est assis dans un fauteuil.—9 items.

Allow this description to be made several times. Before the second or third repetition, efface the present tense verbs and let the pupils be guided by the infinitive only.

The picture is now removed and the teacher tells the pupils that they are going to be told what they have seen. *Viz*: What the picture represented. As each statement is

completed, the new verb form will be written on the BB. opposite its corresponding infinitive.

Sts. Vous avez vu un tableau. 1. Il représentait une famille. (BB. représentait). 2. Cette famille se composait de six personnes. (se composait).—9 items.

The class will now be required to reproduce, with the help of the tabulated verbs, a description of what the picture represented. This description will be made at the Cd.: Dites-moi ce que vous avez vu; or the Qs.: Que représentait ce tableau?

<i>BB.</i>	<i>Infinitif</i>	<i>Présent</i>	<i>Passé Continu</i>
1.	Représenter.	Il représente.	Elle représentait.
2.	Se composer.	Elle se compose.	Elle se composait.
—10 verbs.			

S. (Pupils) Nous avons vu un tableau. 1. Il représentait une famille, etc.

At the second or third round, cover up the new tense and let pupils be guided by the infinitives only. They may, incidentally, be told that this part of the verb is called l'imparfait or better still le passé continu.

Other pictures may be used similarly so as to give the opportunity of presenting other verbs. Almost any picture will serve this purpose.—(The English Reader will supply several). If, however, a large picture of the story-without-words type can be placed before the class, much interest will be added to the work.

If suitable pictures are not at hand, a rapidly improvised "tableau vivant" will be found equally effective.

The corresponding section of *Oral Lessons* contains the picture, about 150 words of text in the imperfect tense and the following exercises.

A, Phonetic drill. *N*, Transposition of phrases to negative and reverse. *Gr.*, Part of the above text trans-

posed to the present and the future, to be read. *K*, A tense-transcription exercise using the rest of the text. *H*, Transcription from phonetic text. *I*, Two short passages for translation (i) into English, (ii) into French. *S*, Exercise in oral reproduction from the picture.

The letters *A*, *B*, *C*, etc. represent different types of exercises, and are described in detail in the *Manual*.

At the head of each section in the *Manual* is a statement of the objective aimed at. In Part V, these objectives are grammatical in 5 sections, covering, in the section indicated by number, (1) the continuous past, (5*a*) the pronoun object with infinitives, imperatives, etc. (6*a*) agreement of past participles with object, (8) the use of *en*, pronoun, in its partitive sense. In all other cases the aim is to teach stated vocabulary. New words are printed in black-face as they occur in the *Manual*. Rather less than 150 of these appear in Part V. The total of the reading matter amounts to about 3000 words.

Examination

The grammatical content of grade VII work is indicated by the paper set for the annual examination, which of course is supplemented by periodical oral tests; it contains a dictation taken from the book. This paper is arranged so that answers can be written below the questions.

SUPERIOR SCHOOL EXAMINATION, 1926

LE FRANÇAIS.

GRADE VII.

Répondez à la question *dix* et à *six* autres. La question *dix* vaut *douze* marques, les autres *quatorze*. On donnera quatre marques pour un papier propre et bien écrit.

I. Écrivez au pluriel:—

1. Je suis plus adroit que mon voisin.—3 items.

- II. Ecrivez au singulier:—
1. Les hommes se lèvent de bonne heure.—3 items.
- III. Remplacez les noms en italique par le pronom qui convient:—
1. J'aime *les fruits*.—5 items.
- IV. Complétez ces phrases;
1. Il se chauffe.—5 items.
- V. Ecrivez au futur avec *Nous*:—
- Ils *arrivent* de tous côtés. Ils *descendent* dans le puits. Ils *retrouvent* l'Irlandais. Ils *avaient* peur de le retrouver mort. Ils *étaient* contents de le retrouver vivant. Ils *partirent*.
- VI. Ecrivez au *présent* et au *parfait*;—
- Joseph *être* un domestique dévoué. Son maître *avoir* du travail à finir. Il lui *dire* de le réveiller à trois heures. Joseph ne *se réveiller* pas facilement. Il *prendre* un journal et *se mettre* à lire.
- VII. Répondez à ces questions:—
1. A quelle heure vous levez-vous?—5 items.
- VIII. Répondez à ces questions:—
1. Fait-il froid aujourd'hui?—5 items.
- IX. Faites entrer ces mots en de bonnes phrases:
- La dent; une balance; un timbre-poste; la coquille; un noyer.

Technique

It has been shown that the *Teachers' Manual* is a detailed handbook of method: the technique of this method is described in general terms, and its principles laid down in some 15 pages of another *Manual of Instruction*¹ issued to all teachers under the Protestant School Board of the City of Montreal. This chapter stresses the

¹ *Manual respecting Course of Study and Examination Tests in the Protestant Public Schools of Montreal.* Montreal, 1925, pp. 28-43.

need for clarity of exposition and enunciation, with a view to full comprehension by all the class of every point that arises; to this end it is urged that instructions and explanations be translated when necessary. The recommendation is made that in a lesson of half an hour's duration 20 minutes should be devoted to active oral work. "As many as 6 new words may be presented, illustrated and practised satisfactorily in this time." "The reading of the material used in the oral lesson should follow, as early as possible, the oral lesson itself. Individual reading is occasionally necessary for testing purposes, but the errors made are apt to react unfavourably on the phonetic standard of the whole class." To prevent this, pupils are to follow the teacher's reading on the printed page, noting syllabification and breath groups, and reproducing in chorus the patterned reading.

Testing

An important section of this chapter of the *Montreal Manual* deals with the testing and marking of oral work, and lays down rules for the processes referred to above. The factors that make for oral proficiency are thus segregated: (*a*) retention of vocabulary, (*b*) reconstructive ability, (*c*) comprehension, (*d*) reproduction of French paradigms, (*e*) grammatical accuracy, (*f*) phonetic accuracy. Tests are to be so designed as to give separate measurement of each of these abilities, and suggestions are offered for using or supplementing different parts of the Curtis and Robert series with that end in view. It may be noted that (*c*) and (*d*) are to be measured by means of oral translation, (*e*) by substitution and modification exercises, (*f*) by private testing of individuals, whose capacity is to be estimated with regard to purity of sounds, syllabification, and breath-groupings.

Fortnightly tests are planned to measure and record each of the abilities (*a*), (*b*), etc. The score sheet is divided into six columns, and five or six pupils are examined under each heading at each test. Thus the six columns will be filled at the end of eight or ten weeks, and the results compared with marks for the previous term. Teachers are advised to study the record thus obtained with a view to securing information on (1) the relative proficiency attained in different parts of the work, (2) the pupils' progress and (3) the validity of the questions themselves.

Special Circulars

These general instructions are amplified, as occasion demands, by special circulars issued by the supervisor through the Secretary-Superintendent of the Protestant Board. A typical page describes, for instance, the method of analysing errors in a dictation exercise, by classifying them and counting by show of hands. The frequency can thus be roughly measured of such error-types as:—

(A) Phonetic: *é* for *è*; *ce* for *ceux*.

(B) Confusion of homonyms, related and unrelated: *on* for *ont*, *mangé* for *manger*.

(C) Errors in agreement.

In another circular remedial exercises for certain types of error are outlined.

The High School Grades

The work of grade VII has been described at some length because it seems to be most representative of the method employed in both elementary and high school grades. In the latter there is the same emphasis laid on the oral side of the work, texts are read largely with a view to linguistic study, with little translation and much oral composition. Part VII of the *Oral Lessons* contains short

stories, extracts from *Gil Blas*, La Fontaine's *Le Chêne et le Roseau*. Grammar has a large place in each lesson, and the last 18 pages of the book contain a summary of accidence. There is of course no French-English vocabulary, but definitions of new words are given in foot-notes. To the transposition exercises are added a *version*, a *thème*, and a passage for *lecture phonétique et transcription*.

In grades IX, X, XI, Berthon's Grammar is systematically studied and short stories or plays prescribed for reading; *Perrichon* is read in X, and in XI a longer prescription covers *Les Braves Gens* and *Quatre contes choisis* from Daudet. But the system gives no place to extensive reading and it is left to the pupil's own initiative to extend the field of his studies. A show of hands in a 10th grade class indicated that about half of the pupils read the French Press, and a few claimed acquaintance with magazines and novels. The library of one high school is well supplied with works in French, both literary and popular, which are frequently borrowed; but in general there is little to indicate that the average pupil reads much outside his school syllabus.

The aim and content of the high school course are best epitomized in the leaving examination which is described in the chapter on examinations. It will be noted that the written paper includes an "histoire à reproduire": in high schools that have a specialist on the staff this is supplemented by an oral examination, conducted by the supervisor of French in English schools, with the collaboration of the teacher.

The Supervisors and their Work

(i) In the Province

The supervisor of French in English schools has general charge of the teaching of the language outside the city of

Montreal, and in addition to the formal duties detailed below, acts in an advisory capacity when consulted by school boards and principals in regard to appointments and other matters pertaining to the teaching of French.

The functions of the office are:—

To visit each school which employs a French specialist, at least once during the year, and to give such suggestions and advice regarding the teacher's and the pupils' work as may be needed. The teacher's work is tested by observation of her teaching, whereas the pupils are examined orally or by means of written exercises, in order to ascertain that they have reached the standard required for their special grade, due regard being given to the date upon which the visit is made.

To assist the school inspectors at their yearly conferences, in the autumn of each year, by means of model lessons, discussion of methods, and explanation of difficulties as regards pronunciation, or grammatical questions.

To examine the pupils of the high school grades (grades IX, X, XI) at the end of the school year in the purely oral part of their work and with the co-operation of the class teacher to assign to each pupil what is considered a just ranking.

To report to the department of education upon each school, and to recommend for the government bonus any school that has fulfilled the conditions upon which bonuses are granted.

To assist the director of the French summer school for specialists.

(ii) *In Montreal*

The Protestant School Board of the City of Montreal employs a supervisor of French, who has charge of the

methods of teaching the subject in the 450 to 500 classes that lie within his field. These classes belong mainly to the elementary schools; high school classes are visited also, especially those that are not taught by specialists. The supervisor is vested with the powers of inspection and direction that belong to the secretary-superintendent, and endeavours to see each teacher's work once a month, though the limitations of time do not allow this programme to be rigidly carried out.

Functions

It is the duty of the supervisor to order and arrange the course of study and to see that the recommendations that he makes through the board are put into effect; to deal with special difficulties as need arises; to instruct new teachers in their work by giving specimen lessons in their class-rooms, and to advise all teachers by offering suggestions based on his observation of their practice; to examine classes, standardize the tests prepared by the teachers, and check the scoring of such tests, oral and written.

Class-room visitation and the counselling of individual teachers are supplemented by discussion of problems with groups of teachers or by demonstration lessons given to a class in the presence of several teachers from the same school. Formerly the supervisor added to his advisory duties the task of giving formal instruction to teachers in language, phonetics and methods.

Routine

A normal day in the supervisor's routine will comprise the inspection of 10 to 15 classes, spending 20 minutes in the elementary and 30 in the high school grades. Since most of the work is being done by the regular class teacher, the day's time-table can be arranged to give an unbroken

sequence of French lessons. The teacher has all necessary material ready, pictures and objects for the lesson, the questions she used at the last written and oral tests, and the marks obtained by pupils. Inspection and criticism of these questions is as much a part of the supervisor's functions as the control of the actual process of teaching, in which he frequently takes part.

Test Questions

The oral and written test questions are examined with a view to their suitability for measuring comprehension, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy and knowledge of related material, points which are specifically treated in the printed instructions issued to all teachers working under this system. Samples of the pupils' work in the last written test are also inspected with a view to securing objectivity in scoring and uniformity in standards of difficulty; suggestions are written for the guidance of the teacher, remedial exercises prescribed for the most general errors, and the teacher is asked to make a frequency count of the errors under treatment. At the end of each term the supervisor checks the final oral examination against the total results of the periodical tests, and tries out a few average pupils with representative questions selected from the teacher's own sets. If several pupils fail to sustain their allotted scores, the marking of the whole class may have to be revised. It is thus evident that an effort is being made to arrive as near as may be to objectivity in the very subjective process of scoring oral tests. Experiments in the use of audition tests have been made in this school system, the results of which are treated in the chapter on tests.

The city of Westmount has also a supervisor of French,

who is a teacher in one of the schools and acts in a general advisory capacity in matters pertaining to his work.

The Direct Method; Class-room Observation

The two outstanding claims that are made for the direct method as adapted for the need of the English-speaking population of the province of Quebec are, that it commands the continuing interest of the pupil, and does in the end, or well before the end, enable him to make practical oral use of the French language. The opinions of teachers and the impressions gained in class-room visits confirm the first of these claims; as regards the second it is to be regretted that there are no reliable tests of speaking ability that will give an impersonal measurement of the pupil's capacity for exact comprehension, accurate pronunciation, and fluency of speech. Attainment in reading and writing can be accurately measured and expressed in figures that give a basis for comparison with attainment in those abilities in other provinces and countries; but anything that can be said about oral ability is purely a matter of personal impression. With this reservation it can be stated that in the great majority of the many classes visited in different parts of Quebec, pupils appeared to have reached a high standard of comprehension and were able to express themselves in fairly fluent language on topics that came within the limits of their vocabulary; in several cases an attempt was made to apply, as a mass audition test, part of a series of statements designed as a multiple-choice reading comprehension test.

An Aural Comprehension Test

This was the Wood-Méras Comprehension Test used in the survey of French in the New York City Junior High Schools. The type of question is:—

Quand le maître est entré dans la salle de classe un élève écrivait au tableau noir; cet élève tenait à la main gauche un livre, et dans l'autre, 1, un fil; 2, un morceau de craie; 3, un fusil; 4, un crayon; 5, un canif.

The questions and answers were read twice and pupils wrote down the number of the answer they chose. The results were surprisingly good, and while having no measuring value whatever, left in the mind of the visitor a strong conviction that standardized aural comprehension tests, when available, will prove the existence of a high norm of achievement in the schools of this province. Further evidence is offered by university instructors in the province, who state that the use of French in the lecture room is no impediment to full comprehension of the subject matter; and that public lectures in French command a large voluntary attendance of students.

An organized audition test was made by Mr. F. R. Robert in the Montreal high schools for the purpose of discovering the relation between visual and aural ability and also between free composition and oral ability.¹

Oral attainment

Impressions of the pupils' ability to speak the language are less reliable, because the greater part of the French heard on the lips of children in the classes was part of their routine study, and there was little opportunity to judge how they would fare if called upon to make independent use of the school-room material that formed the content of their organized conversation. However, in the senior grade of one large high school the investigator was invited to propose a subject for three-minute speeches by the pupils. The first theme that occurred was "Pourquoi j'apprends la langue française", a subject that pro-

¹See section entitled Written Tests as a Measure of Oral Achievement.

duced several well-composed and clearly spoken little addresses. There were naturally errors of grammar and accent, but the rhythm and feeling of most of the work was unmistakably French, and the speakers knew enough about the language to make suitable substitutions when they reached the confines of their vocabulary; there was little evidence of the distortion of phrase that betrays the mental translator. In another school an 11th grade pupil gave an excellent oral reproduction after hearing two rapid readings of a 140 word passage of easy narrative.

Schools visited

Fifteen schools were visited in the province, lessons by 33 teachers observed in 23 elementary and 23 secondary classes, and about 20 teaching and administrative officers interviewed. The schools visited included the following types of institution: 4 large city high schools, 2 high schools in smaller cities, 3 urban elementary schools, 2 suburban high schools, 1 country high school, 3 private schools. Exact data on the number of pupils seen at work were not secured, but at a conservative estimate they probably amount to 1200.

General impressions

The observer's impression is that nearly all of the pupils were keenly interested in their work; and that the majority of the teachers were making successful application of the method laid down for their guidance. About a third of the teachers were obviously skilful practitioners, capable of adapting the *Manual* to the particular needs of their classes and thoroughly at home in the language; on the other hand, a small minority, three or four, appeared to be making mechanical use of a system that they did not really understand, even though they might

possess a sound working knowledge of French. The classes in which this was observed, or suspected to be the case, went through their work in a dull sing-song and seemed to tire rapidly. In one case the children gave chorus answers apparently by rote, sometimes without looking at the pictures or objects on which the lesson was supposed to be based.

Use of Phonetic Symbols

An interesting phase of the system was noted in the employment of phonetic symbols for drill and recognition exercises in quite junior divisions. The conventional type of vowel lessons is supplemented by a device that forms a sort of mass test of audition: the vowel symbols, each printed in very large type on cards about 10 by 8 inches, are spaced at wide intervals round the room and pupils prove their recognition of each sound by pointing to its symbol. This test was seen in operation in several classes, and the result was accurate and spontaneous, there being very few laggards waiting to see which way the majority voted. A space on the blackboard is reserved at the beginning of the course for phonetic symbols, which are left standing and used for occasional drill until learned, and the elementary text book has all material printed in the script on the opposite page. Teachers who held specialists' certificates were found to attain a high standard of phonetic accuracy; others varied, but there was a marked absence of anglicized or americanized pronunciation.

Interviews with Teachers and Administrators

Among the people interviewed were school principals and inspectors, professors, and a number of teachers whose classes could not for one reason or another be

visited. All showed a keen and practical interest in the work of the committee and the new examination methods exemplified in the achievement tests. Some teachers described their own efforts to measure the group progress of pupils under their charge: one, for instance, had set the twenty members of her senior class to debate among themselves for a school period, scoring the number of times each one spoke. The distribution ranged from zero to 20, with a mode of 9. The fact that such an experiment could be made at all says much for the results of her teaching.

Some Notes on Lessons

One or two lessons may be described in some detail.

The 11th grade in a large high school was engaged in the study of a story, A. Daudet's *le Secret de Maître Cornille*. The work proceeds by the question and answer method, the teacher's object being to sketch the outline of an oral composition exercise to be prepared for the following lesson. Instructions are given in correct and fluent French as to the form the exercise is to assume. What is the nature of the work under consideration, *drame*, *tragédie*, *nouvelle*, etc.? Orderly arrangement is an important desideratum, and the completed exercise must consist of five paragraphs, the introduction, Maître Cornille, *le pays*, and so forth. By leading questions the teacher brings out the points he wishes to stress, and the questions are quickly and easily answered, though here and there the reply suggests an almost memorized familiarity with the text. Next the vocabulary of the passage is taken up, and there is further questioning on *familles de mots*; then a passage for oral translation, but in this the class do not show such quick comprehension, and some of the renderings are distinctly weak; idioms are fixed by

being retranslated into French, and there is an exercise in translating sentences, some of which suggest the older type of grammar lesson, for example, "the one in which we are in the act of passing the evening."

Whether it were due to the extra effort inspired by the presence of an outsider, or to the nature of the method employed, it seemed in many cases that teacher and class tended to tire before the end of the period. This was especially so in a 9th grade group of about average ability who were taught by an enthusiastic instructor of great fluency in either language, and rather given to digressions, which, however interesting to the better listeners, can only have fatigued the aural attention of the majority. The above-mentioned informal audition test gave good results in this class, though they failed curiously to recognize the word *couturière*, and the phrase *la langue officielle des Etats Unis* evoked no response at all.

In general the method in the elementary classes runs pretty close to the syllabus, so that there is little to be noted beyond the variation in response due to difference in personality and capacity of teachers and taught. It is only to be expected that a school staffed by specialists and serving a prosperous community will make a better impression than one populated mainly by immigrant children and taught by less experienced instructors; what is surprising is the degree of success attained by those working in the less favourable conditions. In the high schools there is more scope for individual vagaries, and it was not without a flicker of amusement that one heard a direct method grammar lesson traverse the well-worn path of *genou*, *hibou*, *joujou*, *pou*, even though these substantives were illuminated by a vivid *explication de mots*. In the majority of cases the basic rules of all teaching were practised, so that lessons maintained an even pace; of the

forty odd lessons attended only three were really bad, and perhaps four or five more were dull; an excellent average when one reflects what French lessons, direct or otherwise, can be at their worst.

Dramatic and Musical Exercises

The device of dramatizing the material of Reader or Grammar is frequently employed by the more skilful teachers and the investigator was enabled to see several instances of its successful application. In one case his visit was celebrated by a vocal and dramatic concert in which the whole school took part—chansons, action songs, commercial dialogues, fables, monologues—all in French, and executed with an infectious enjoyment and *brio* that was obviously shared by performers and audience alike. The proceedings closed with the Lord's Prayer and the National Anthem, equally gallicized. The enthusiasm of the teacher and her school are representative of the attitude towards the study of the language in the Lower Province.

Clubs

The pupils of a large high school, well-known for the efficiency and enthusiasm of its French teaching, carry on a vigorous program of musical, dramatic and journalistic activities in French. There are two clubs, *Le Cercle Français* for the boys and *Les Bavardes Françaises* for the girls, and a joint organization is under consideration. The School Magazine has a 10 page *section française* which is the official organ of the club and prints original contributions written by pupils. Among the titles are *Les écoles françaises du Canada*—an appeal for bilingualism outside of Quebec; *La poésie canadienne-française*, etc. From the club reports may be quoted the following paragraphs illustrative at once of the style of the *section française* and the activities of the *Cercle*.

LE CERCLE FRANÇAIS (1925-26)

Rapport annuel

Notre Cercle, selon l'heureuse inspiration de son fondateur, a pour but de compléter le travail forcément restreint de la classe, et d'aider les élèves des sixième et cinquième formes à mieux apprendre et mieux comprendre le français. A chacune de nos séances, nous avons un hôte d'honneur qui nous fait une petite causerie. Ce sont en général les professeurs de français.

LES BAVARDES FRANÇAISES

Rapport annuel

Nous avons choisi le nom: "Les Bavardes Françaises", qui convient à des jeunes filles ayant à coeur de parvenir à causer convenablement en français. Nous avons nos réunions deux fois par mois, le vendredi, après la classe; à ces réunions, nous jouons des charades, nous causons et nous chantons; quelquefois nous avons un petit goûter.

SOIRÉE DE CLÔTURE DES CERCLES FRANÇAIS

Les membres des deux Cercles français ont interprété d'abord une scène du "Bourgeois gentilhomme", de Molière et une comédie en trois actes, du même auteur, "Le médecin malgré lui". Tous les acteurs se sont acquittés de leurs rôles d'une manière vraiment admirable. Le chœur de la "High School for Girls" a chanté d'abord "La Marseillaise" et "O Canada", puis, dans les entr'actes "Ma Normandie", de Bérat et "Bois épais", de Lulli. La chanson mimée "Au clair de la lune" a été beaucoup aimée et applaudie.

Opinions of Teachers; Objectives

Answers to the Selected Teachers' Questionnaire did not, in the main, add much to what is already recorded: but four or five respondents have decided and interesting opinions on the matter set before them. The teachers of this group believe that the valid objectives for the teaching of French are (i) the ability to use the language in conversation, (ii) the fostering of an interest in French Canada, (iii) the ability to use English with increased accuracy and intelligence. This excludes, it will be noticed, reading and writing as valid objectives, though it can be assumed that their utility is recognized as aids to the attainment of oral ability, thus reversing the practice of the "Cleveland Plan",¹ in which the spoken language is avowedly a means to the attainment of linguistic and educational objectives, rather than an end in itself. One teacher adds "Objectives incidental to oral teaching: (i) Ear training in new sounds. (ii) Development of habits of observation, alertness and rapid reaction of a distinct type, unprovided by other school activities." Against this body of opinion may be set the objection mentioned in conversation by more than one teacher, that the Quebec system does not cultivate the pupil's habit of reading.

Some Weaknesses of the System

In the section dealing with factors affecting achievement, oral mastery of the language is considered by some

¹E. B. de Sauzé. *The Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages*: J. C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1924, p. 3. "Our survey has demonstrated to us that the shortest road to a mere reading knowledge of a language is through oral drill. The ability to speak and the ability to understand in our Cleveland scheme of teaching are by-products of the method used; we would still continue to use oral drill, even if we had decided that it was not important to impart any other knowledge of the language than the mastery of the fundamentals and the ability to read spontaneously."

to be "not absolutely necessary if the teacher is otherwise efficient and uses the *Manual* intelligently." The training of specialists is not, in the opinion of several teachers, found to be satisfactory: they require much practice and direction before becoming efficient. The reason suggested for this weakness is "lack of a clearly defined objective."

Another note points out that it takes four years to equip a teacher of physical training, while a French specialist¹ can be taught his trade in three weeks; that only recently has French been made a compulsory subject for the high school diploma, and that many teachers have been appointed to positions demanding the teaching of French though their training involved little or no oral preparation.

Further comments are: The work in French would be greatly helped if time were devoted in English classes to oral composition . . . Pupils are not made to use English with the accuracy and phonetic exactness required in their French lessons . . . Greater load on French teacher to secure accuracy and precision in French sounds.

Examinations

In the matter of examination practice, the following observations occur: Departmental examinations in the early years are found to have a corrective and stimulating effect: for oral abilities the teacher's test confirmed by an outside oral test gives most reliable results: comprehension questions are approved if answered in French, not, as in the committee's tests, in English.²

¹See note on page 490.

²This objection, which is commonly raised by direct method teachers, arises from a confusion in their minds between teaching methods and testing devices. It is found that a question can often be answered in French, by merely selecting a phrase or two from the text, without giving any evidence of comprehension. The aim of the test is to prove comprehension only. Ability to write French is another matter and is otherwise tested.

Early Beginners versus Late

The question of early beginners aroused interest, though naturally Quebec teachers have little experience of the reverse; but in some of the city schools there is a small influx of new pupils from other provinces, with no previous training in French. One group of teachers states: "Pupils who desire to learn can catch up. Many do not. Foreigners usually do." And one well-known teacher definitely records his opinion that an early beginning makes very little difference and only tends to spread the work over a longer term of years.

Tests

Details of the results of the committee's tests applied in the English schools of Quebec will be found in the chapter on achievement.

Conclusion

The question arises: to what extent does the Quebec protestant school system satisfy the public demand that its children be taught to speak, read, and write the French language with ease and accuracy? Part of the answer is contained in the foregoing pages and in the section dealing with results of tests, but the question cannot be fully and accurately answered until means are devised for measuring oral and aural achievement. The available evidence suggests that these abilities reach a high level as compared with results in other parts of Canada, but it may be asked further: does the total result, in ability to speak, understand, read and write, give an adequate return for the extra time and effort expended in the elementary years? Inspection of the norms for vocabulary, grammar and reading does not show as marked a superiority as might

be expected; in the matter of free composition, there is a greater advantage, and it may be added that in the type of error the compositions written in Quebec differ widely from those in the rest of Canada. When read aloud they sound like French; when examined for verbal accuracy they are marred by misspellings and small grammatical errors. The same is true for many of the free compositions written by pupils in England taught by similar methods.

It has been stated, and the fact was stressed in conversation by many teaching and administrative officers, that the English-speaking public of the province of Quebec, demand that French shall be taught as a spoken language; and the demand appears to be supplied within the limits of the schoolroom vocabulary. But it seems doubtful whether the attempt has been made to fit the content of the school curriculum to the needs of a bilingual community; in other words, whether the curriculum takes account of the points of contact between the two races.

These points of contact lie for the most part in the fields of activity outside the home; social intercourse between French and English Canada is infrequent; business dealings are a matter of everyday occurrence. Obviously the content of the early years of the course must deal with the simple objects within the child's range, but it is at least debatable whether the high school pupil should not be encouraged, or required, to read and hear and discuss material drawn from the life and experience of his French-speaking fellow citizens. The system of intensive study within a limited range produces a certain kind of technical skill which is apt, unless given wider scope, to have an equally limited utility and to perish for lack of material on which to exercise itself.

The problem is of course a local one, and outside the boundaries of this enquiry, but it is permissible to speculate what would be the effect, on measured linguistic attainment, and on less easily measurable intellectual expansion, of adding to the existing texts an extensive course of practical reading on matters of permanent interest to citizens of the province.

THE SELECTED TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

I

An inquiry known as the "Selected Teacher Questionnaire" was addressed to 147 persons experienced in the teaching of modern languages. These were asked to record their opinions on various problems and to describe in some detail the method and organization of their teaching. The completion of this document made considerable demands on the time and energy of the respondents, so that a usable return of 67 questionnaires is a very satisfactory result. The information sought bore on the following topics: objectives and their estimated achievement, factors affecting achievement, material and methods, examination, administration, syllabus and textbooks, oral-aural instruction, testing, the effect of beginning language study in early years, the classification of students, the comparative success of native and of foreign teachers, etc.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts: (i) objectives, (ii) material and methods, (iii) special problems.

OBJECTIVES

Teachers were asked to consider the following list of objectives and to state their opinion on the general validity of each one, and on its validity in the circumstances governing their own practice:

A. Ability to read the language with ease and enjoyment.

B. Ability to use the language in conversation.

- C. Ability to write the language for practical purposes.
- D. Ability to use English with increased accuracy and intelligence.
- E. Increased power to learn other languages.
- F. Realization of the importance of correct speech.
- G. Knowledge of the peoples who speak the language.
- H. (for French). A sympathetic interest in French Canada.
- I. Development of literary and artistic appreciation.
- J. An understanding of the history and nature of language.
- K. Development of habits of sustained effort.

The questions asked regarding them were:

1. Which of the objectives (A, B, C, etc.) do you consider valid in general?
2. Which of them are valid under present conditions for your own school?
3. Which of these objectives would you select for your pupils in their present environment and teaching conditions if you were free to define the scope of the departmental examination for which you now prepare pupils?
4. Which of them would you consider most important if you were free to arrange your own teaching conditions?

The tabulation of returns gives the following results. The figures under each heading, 1, 2, 3, 4, give the number of teachers approving the objective and the order of preference in which this objective stands.

For the first three objectives the trend of opinion is very clear. Teachers are agreed that languages should be taught with a view to reading, writing, and speaking. In the minds of a few there is some doubt as to the general

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF TEACHERS APPROVING OBJECTIVE A, B, C, ETC., IN THE CIRCUMSTANCES INDICATED BY QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4, ABOVE, AND THE ORDER OF PREFERENCE GIVEN TO THESE OBJECTIVES

	1		2		3		4	
	Order	Number	Order	Number	Order	Number	Order	Number
A	1	47	1	40	1	44	1	45
B	3	43	4	26	2	42	2	44
C	1	47	2	38	3	40	3	40
D	7	30	5	25	5	21	5	12
E	8	29	6	19	9	15	10	3
F	10	28	7	16	10	14	7	6
G	5	31	7	16	7	18	5	12
H	5	31	9	13	6	19	8	9
I	8	29	10	9	7	18	9	4
J	11	16	11	4	11	6	11	0
K	4	32	3	28	4	22	4	15

validity of the speaking objective, and nearly half the respondents consider it impossible of attainment under present conditions. One teacher and organizer of wide experience sets as an objective incidental to oral teaching, "the development of habits of observation, alertness and rapid reaction of a distinct type, unprovided by other school activities." Next in importance, both in actual and ideal conditions, is placed K, development of habits of sustained effort.

The group of objectives (F, G, H, I) that may roughly be classified as "modern humanities" appeal to about three-fifths of the respondents as theoretical desiderata, but are not found practicable by more than one-third, and these do not in general consider that changes in examination would greatly affect the case.

Objective J, nature and history of language, is probably regarded as being outside the range of secondary education in Canada; and E, increased power to learn other languages, is perhaps omitted by teachers whose experience does not qualify them to answer.

The tabulation under question 4 should not be interpreted to mean that teachers working under ideal conditions would tend to neglect all but the first three objectives. The question, as stated, asks them to indicate the most important objectives, and the order of the rest is not recorded. Hence the answers are selective. It is notable that here B comes above C.

ESTIMATED ACHIEVEMENT

Having defined their objectives, teachers were asked to estimate the percentage of their pupils attaining them "to an appreciable degree" at different stages of instruction. Twenty-five persons hazarded a reply to this rather vague question, and naturally their estimate is based on twenty-five different standards.

There is a general opinion that most pupils, at the end of three years, have attained a reasonable degree of ability in reading and writing; have developed, through language study, habits of sustained effort; and have succeeded in a less degree in the attempt to acquire a speaking knowledge of the languages studied. Few entries occur under objectives D, E, F, and hardly any under H, G and I.

Representative opinions are recorded in the following quotations from teachers' replies to this group of questions:

"Only French-speaking pupils have attained these objectives by the end of their 5th year with us. But some 10% lay such a foundation as enables them to continue and attain them later. I find them joining French societies, reading, seeking opportunities for conversation, etc."

"In first year a few, 5%, with natural gifts and special interest will gain a fair pronunciation and a

limited vocabulary—with French surroundings would soon gain a splendid facility in expression and conversation. In second year these and a few others will have taken such an interest in reading as to be able to interpret easy French, and thus on.”

“In the writer’s opinion, too much is prescribed for the achievement of permanent results. Doctors say that it is not how much we eat, but how well we assimilate our food; some professors (and teachers) advocate a large amount of reading, and thereby largely defeat their own ends by making thoroughness utterly impossible.”

FACTORS AFFECTING ACHIEVEMENT

The following summary gives the number of teachers reporting under each item:

(a) School conditions: crowded classes, 44; improper classification, 36; non-academic activities, 34; too short periods, 20; lack of interest on the part of pupils, 7.

(b) Weakness of text books: in suitable content, 20; in indicating methods, 14.

(c) Weakness of teachers in: knowledge of the language, 12; oral mastery of the language, 20; teaching methods, 16; lack of clearly defined objective, 14.

(d) General limitation caused by heavy teaching load, 36; administrative routine, 15; too much exercise correction, 18.

The gravest difficulties that the language teacher has to meet appear then to be: crowded classes, improper classification, and long teaching hours. To a less degree results are held to be affected by shortness of time allotted, lack of equipment, unsuitable text books, and the teacher’s inability to speak the language taught. Among other suggested factors are: lack of home culture, shortage of early material, the idea that French is easy,

weakness of grammar teaching in general. One teacher thinks that the application of a provincial examination to all grades would give a needed impetus to the early years, and finds his difficulties increased by the system of allowing the two matriculation papers, composition and translation, to be taken in different years.

The following passages are selected from the many annotations offered by respondents:

"The chief fault is that we allow children who do not know their own language to attempt another language. An English-speaking child regularly fails in English grammar, and yet we allow that child in a French class where she (or he) does her best to retard the progress of the class. I do think that only children who show good work in their own language should be allowed to take a foreign language."

"In this school the teachers go from room to room; the pupils remain in their class-rooms. Hence, there is little opportunity for making a proper collection of the books, pictures, etc., which would be most helpful in our work."

"In the curriculum there are too many subjects with too much work prescribed in each, and in the first year the new pupil is bewildered by all this new work. His weakness in languages is largely due to the fact that he knows almost no English grammar. This, of course, must be taught by the language teachers."

"1. The present regulations allow a pupil to write on the French matriculation papers without adequate preparation. Our course is four years,—some pupils on their own initiative write matriculation either at the end of the second or third year, on either or both papers. If they are successful they enter the university under a handicap, if they are unsuccessful the average of successes is lowered.

2. The present system of writing four subjects of the matriculation makes for neglect of the languages in the second and third years. A pupil passes in, say, English literature and composition, British history and chemistry, which subjects he has stressed during the third year, and is promoted to do higher grade work in the languages. Having neglected languages for at least one year, the result is failure or average success for pupils who should take honours. Promotion depends too much upon the subjects in which he has gained matriculation standing, and the higher grades in languages are filled with pupils whose language work does not warrant promotion.

3. The unsatisfactory teaching of English grammar forces the modern language teacher to do most elementary work in English before he can proceed with his own language work.

4. The present character of the annual departmental examinations tends to neglect of conversation, pronunciation, free composition, dictation. Our objective theoretically includes all of these; in practice we prepare classes for a written examination and naturally tend to lose sight of what many now regard as non-essentials judged from the point of view of examinations only."

"The public attitude is reflected in schools always and everywhere. Successful teaching of languages is most general in countries like Holland and Denmark, where the native tongue will not serve fifty miles from home and the public demand language work."

"My theory is that the size of classes and public lack of interest are the two drawbacks. Learning a language is the business of the learner; without his very active co-operation no methods will do much. With his active co-operation any method will do a great deal. In Ontario people do not want their children to learn

French. They only want them to pass their matriculation."

MATERIAL AND METHODS

SYLLABUS

Except for Ontario and British Columbia information under this heading added nothing to the data found in provincial programmes. The subject is dealt with in a section of the chapter on conditions and practice.

With the object of securing opinions as to the "sur-render value" of existing school courses in languages, teachers were asked whether they thought the syllabus should be modified for pupils who follow it for two years or less; reference to table 14 of the chapter on statistics shows that such pupils are in some provinces 50% of those that begin the language. In reply 28 teachers voted for a modified course, and 12 were opposed. Of those recommending the change some suggested a shift of emphasis to the reading ability; others would like to see the oral side of the work stressed for the two-year pupil.

EXAMINATIONS

A group of questions dealt with the technique and content of public examinations and their reaction on class-room procedure. The first question, effect of examinations on the early years of language work, was answered by more than half the reporting teachers. The general verdict was, that the form of the examination forced a too early emphasis on grammatical instruction, reduced the time available for oral work and caused a premature effort to write the language. In Ontario, teachers advance the view that the examination is so far distant that beginners have not the necessary stimulus to spur their energies. They point out that the system

of taking matriculation piecemeal concentrates attention on the subjects that are taken first.

PREScribed TEXTS

The question "Do you approve of examinations based on prescribed texts?" was answered by five-sixths of the respondents. In Ontario, where the matriculation examination includes a translation paper on "set books", there is a strong majority in favour of that type of test. A few teachers prefer sight translation alone, and another section would keep the present form of examination but add considerably to the weight of the unseen passages. Others recommend "comprehension questions". One or two teachers, to whose opinions much consideration should be given, would regard any departure from the "prescribed texts" tradition as a dangerous experiment in the present state of linguistic affairs. They believe that many teachers would be at a loss when faced with the problem of teaching pupils to read the language in general and that a definite objective encourages the weaker pupils.

In England, where examining boards do not prescribe texts for reading, it is found that a considerable minority of the schools read little beyond a book of short prose extracts, and that in general the examination requirements do not induce teachers to exact more than the reading of "a varying (sometimes exceedingly small) amount of fiction."¹

ORAL AND AURAL TESTS

A question concerning the desirability and practicability of oral and aural tests was widely answered.

¹*The Position of French in Grant-aided Secondary Schools in England.* Board of Education. Educational Pamphlets, No. 47. London, 1926, p. 31.

The idea of an audition test appealed to 52 teachers, and 46 approved an oral examination, but in the latter case the majority were very doubtful as to the means to be employed.

Many suggestions were offered on the method of carrying out oral and audition tests; there was a general disinclination to entrust the work to university professors, but beyond that, opinion was divided between examinations conducted by the pupils' own teacher, by specially appointed teachers, or by an inspector in charge of modern language work. Two teachers suggest that oral tests should follow elimination by written examination, and one would test only pronunciation. Several were in favour of dictation tests. One would use an audition test plus the teacher's oral mark.

A point of view common to many of the best equipped and most enthusiastic teachers is represented by the following extract from a questionnaire:

"I have indicated that I believe the departmental examinations should test the candidate's ability to speak a foreign language and to understand it when spoken. If this is not done, the greatest incentive to achievement in these lines is lacking, and surely the desirability of understanding and speaking French in these days is granted by all thinking people. Our Ontario representatives in the Dominion House of Commons are pathetic examples of the lack of stress laid upon speaking ability in French by our education system.

"So long as there is no test of understanding and speaking a foreign language, so long as there is such tremendous stress laid upon written examinations in June, just so long will the teacher be thwarted in his or her legitimate ambition for the pupils."

On the other side of the question, a well-known and

successful teacher states her oral objective in these terms:

"I am convinced that pupils cannot learn to speak a foreign language under school conditions. We learn to speak by speaking, and that under natural conditions. But a school can and should so prepare the pupil that he can go on after leaving it and acquire a mastery of speech. He should have a fair vocabulary, a good pronunciation and have conquered his fear of trying."

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

A question concerning the advisability of substituting comprehension questions for the whole or part of the usual translation tests was answered by 53 teachers. These opinions, based in many cases on experience with the committee's comprehension or silent reading test, are in the main favourable to the new type of questions; 11 teachers advocate their exclusive use, 8 reject the idea and 34 would like to see the experiment tried in parts of the translation paper, especially the sight passage.

Varying points of view are represented by the following quotations. It will be noted that two of them assume that the teaching of English is a valid objective in the French class-room.

"No. I do not see the value of comprehension questions. Detective work has small value for the high school pupils. They are obliged to read the prescribed text in any case. On the contrary, there is distinct value in the customary translation test. It tests comprehension of content, mastery of French vocabulary, ability to use good English; in short, the difficult and 'nice' art of turning a foreign language into idiomatic English. After a year's hard work a pupil feels defrauded if he has not the opportunity to show his prowess in rendering the pre-

scribed text. I have heard freshmen at the university so express themselves. Further, the non-imaginative and non-literary mind might miss his matriculation in a comprehension test. I believe in protecting the rights of minorities."

"The translation test as we know it now reveals the pupil's knowledge of his own language as well as that of the foreign tongue. For that reason I should hate to see it omitted."

"Comprehension tests work out to the advantage of the boy of bright wits and general activities, and to the disadvantage of the plodding, studious boy who is attentive in class; or rather, the boy who is alert and takes in everything does correspondingly better than the attentive boy in class. This is, however, perhaps a just compensation, as it is in life."

"I think the careful preparation of a certain amount of translation, carefully weighing synonyms and constructions is of very great value to the pupil; and his power to reproduce such carefully worded translation should be tested, as well as his comprehension of it."

DIVISION OF TIME

Teachers were asked to estimate the division of their time among the various processes, grammar, oral work, etc. The results, roughly tabulated, indicate certain tendencies:

Thirty-seven teachers answered this question, but returns in any given section range from 37 down to 9. Where no reply is given, it must be assumed that the teacher does not use the process referred to at the stage indicated. This statement is clearer if put in concrete form; thus, in third year classes, 36 teachers make a return for grammar, 37 for translation, 23 for composition,

only 11 for free composition, and 20 to 26 for oral work. Re-stating these in percentages, we have the following approximate figures:

TABLES SHOWING NUMBER OF TEACHERS MAKING RETURNS AND PERCENTAGE OF THESE DEVOTING ONE-FIFTH, ETC., OF THEIR TIME TO GRAMMAR, ETC., IN EACH YEAR OF THE COURSE. LEGEND. 36 teachers made returns under third year grammar. Of these, 25% spent one-fifth of their time on it, 10% spent one-fourth, and 55% one-third.

Grammar

Year.....	1	2	3	4	5
Returns.....	35	37	36	27	20
Time $\frac{1}{5}$	40%	40%	35%	32%	25%
$\frac{1}{4}$	15	15	10	8	5
$\frac{1}{3}$	45	45	55	60	70

It is to be noted that the percentage of teachers giving one-third or more of their time to grammar increases from 45% in the first year to 70% in the fifth. In some schools only three years are given, and only one province offers a fifth year of high school work. Hence the lowered returns in these years.

Translation

Year.....	1	2	3	4	5
Returns.....	28	33	37	29	18
Time $\frac{1}{5}$	65%	60%	40%	35%	10%
$\frac{1}{4}$	15	12	10	10	5
$\frac{1}{3}$	20	28	50	55	85

Composition

The close connection between this and grammar probably accounts for the fact that the number of returns is about one-third less.

Year.....	1	2	3	4	5
Returns.....	19	21	23	20	17%
Time $\frac{1}{5}$	66%	60%	55%	65%	35
$\frac{1}{4}$	17	15	12	20	35
$\frac{1}{3}$	17	25	33	15	30

Free Composition

The paucity of answers under this heading indicates that free composition is comparatively rare in Canadian schools.

Year	1	2	3	4	5
Returns	9	12	11	10	8
Time $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	90%	90%	100%	90%	100%
$\frac{1}{4}$	10	10			

Pronunciation

Year	1	2	3	4	5
Returns	26	25	26	19	12
Time $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	66%	80%	75%	68%	66%
$\frac{1}{4}$	11	5	10	10	
$\frac{1}{2}$	23	15	15	24	34

Dictation

Returns	20	22	20	16	11
Time $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	85%	90%	90%	90%	80%
$\frac{1}{4}$	5		10	10	10
$\frac{1}{2}$	10	10			10

Conversation

Returns	27	27	23	20	14
Time $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	55%	66%	80%	90%	80%
$\frac{1}{4}$	10	4	10	5	10
$\frac{1}{2}$	35	30	10	5	10

PROPORTION OF TIME GIVEN TO WRITTEN WORK

In answering the question concerning the proportion of the pupil's time devoted to written work, 16 teachers report that 20% of the time is so spent in class; 14 teachers, 40%; 13 teachers, 60%; one teacher, 80%. In the preparation of homework 6 teachers report that 40% of the pupil's time is spent on written exercises, 14 teachers estimate it at 60% and 23 at 80%.

¹In most cases the entry is $\frac{1}{10}$

CLASS-ROOM PRACTICE

Questions under this heading sought information as to methods employed in imparting the various linguistic abilities at different stages of the high school course.

Pronunciation

The formal teaching of pronunciation is confined largely to the first two years of instruction. From the tabulation given below it appears that in these years rather more than one-third of the teachers consulted give definite phonetic instruction, with the usual physiological explanations, drill on the vowel triangle, and the use of phonetic script; in 10 cases classes are taught to transcribe from or into the phonetic alphabet. A group of 30 instructors rely on imitation for the early teaching of pronunciation.

In the second year the number of entries under "imitation of teacher" rises to 51, and there are correspondingly fewer teachers recording the use of the vowel triangle and physiological explanations. The transcription of phonetic script is more frequent in this year than in the first. In the third and higher years there is less formal teaching of pronunciation. Phonograph records are used by 8 teachers in the first year, but only 2 or 3 of these continue the practice to the end of the school course, probably for lack of suitable material.

Vocabulary

The teaching of vocabulary is accomplished by means of picture charts for the first two years, and by memorization of lists in all years. In the first year 26 report the use of pictures and 28 of word lists; in the third year the visual method is almost entirely abandoned, and 39 teachers say they require the memorization of lists.

Preparation of Texts

A question was prepared with a view to discovering how class-room texts were studied. With exceptions it appears that the whole of the work assigned is translated and intensively worked over in class, with reading aloud by pupils and teacher. In 24 cases the class is taught to translate from the teacher's reading, and an equal number report that they do not use this device. All except 4 teachers say they insist on correct pronunciation; 41 give special vocabulary drill and 11 do not; and oral reproduction is practised by the pupils of 40 out of 52 teachers answering this question.

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS TO ABOVE QUESTIONS

Methods

Table showing number of teachers using different methods at successive stages of progress.

Pronunciation
Method used

		High School years			
	1	2	3	4	5
Physiological Explanation.....	24	16	10	10	9
Phonetic script:					
Reading of.....	22	14	12	5	2
Transcription from.....	10	13	8	3	1
Transcription into.....	10	12	8	4	2
Imitation of teacher.....	30	51	44	51	21
Drill on sound charts (vowel triangle)..	20	11	4	3	1
Phonograph records.....	8	6	5	2	3
<i>Vocabulary</i>					
Picture charts.....	26	16	2	1	1
Memorization of lists.....	28	38	39	34	26

Preparation of Texts

	Yes	No.
Complete translation in class.....	42	8
Intensive study.....	43	6
Reading by pupils.....	50	2
Reading by teacher.....	46	8
Translation from teacher's reading.....	24	24
Correct pronunciation required.....	49	4
Special vocabulary drill.....	41	11
Oral reproduction of parts of text used.....	40	12
Use of aids found in some books.....	41	7
Necessary translation by the teacher to the class.		
Much, 2; little, 37; none, 7		

Grammar

The question on method in teaching grammar was answered by 48 persons, who described a variety of processes. Classification is not easy, but there are indications of four lines of attack; 9 say they lead pupils to deduce rules from examples, 8 use the direct method, 10 explain rules before allowing the class to read them in the book, 8 make extensive use of comparison with corresponding English usage, and 2 base some of their grammatical teaching on Latin constructions. For fixing the lesson many teachers rely on the sentences given in the grammar: 8 make mention of "illustrations chosen from the text", 2 devise special proses based on the reading texts and illustrating the points under discussion, 2 dictate English sentences for translation, and 2 call for free composition using the newly acquired rules. A few answers are summarized:

A teaches by comparison with English, followed by drill in written and oral exercises, and free composition illustrating the point.

B begins by examining the part of speech concerned in English and proceeds to explain French variations; then asks for sentences to be composed and illustrated from the text that is being studied.

C has the vocabulary of a new lesson studied as homework. After the usual presentation of the new material the first half of the English-French exercise is prepared at home and corrected at school. New reading material is introduced as sight translation and then prepared at home with grammatical study of grammatical points. This teacher eliminates much of the "dictionary slavery" by listing new words on the blackboard and assigning three or four to each of a group of pupils, who write the English on the board.

D treats the material of a new lesson first as oral sight work, then has it read by pupils, who list new words and study the lesson as homework. At the next lesson the grammar is presented. This method applies to a text-book that introduces its grammatical examples in narrative form.

E states rules, gives sentences, and tries to lead on slowly to difficult points and, if possible, to entrap the pupil at the blackboard into making a mistake that the others will be called upon to correct. Sometimes the new lesson is assigned as homework.

F keeps pretty close to the grammatical text, and tries to relate his explanations to Latin constructions. This teacher uses mnemonics, *e.g.*, 3-1 to recall the three cases of the variable past participle and the one invariable. *Laplubien* stands for *la plupart*, *bien*, and *encore*.

G bases grammar teaching wholly on assigned texts, collecting and tabulating sentences, which are then subjected to various changes of tense, or whatever it may be, until the rule can be deduced. No formal grammar is taught, and the grammatical text-book is only used by the two senior grades, and by them only for reference.

Composition

In two cases only was the use of special composition

books reported, though the prose pieces in the grammars are freely employed. Many teachers make a practice of preparing original matter based on the material in hand and including special grammatical points, character sketches from the plays or novels, descriptions, press items, etc.; the re-translation of passages from the texts is often assigned, and old examination papers are worked over, especially in Ontario, where the "continuous prose" question is the terror of would-be matriculants.

Passages are dictated in English by some teachers and rendered at once into the foreign language by the pupils.

The scoring of these compositions is done in a variety of ways. Some teachers make a straight error count, others weight the errors differently for grammar, syntax, accident, vocabulary, spelling. Others divide the work into sentences and mark accordingly, in some cases only giving credit when the unit is correct in itself.

A few depart from the usual procedure by giving positive credit for correct phrases with a bonus for neatness of phrase or style.

In many cases there does not seem to be an appreciable difference between the evaluation of prose and that of "sentences", that is to say, the grammatical conception of language teaching prevails.

Free Composition

As was shown by an earlier question the teaching of free composition is not very common; many teachers approve it in theory but regret the lack of time for scoring and the difficulty of giving group instruction when the work is returned to the class. Some mention oral composition under this heading and report that pupils are greatly interested in it, and make evident progress.

Many of the teachers use a method of positive credit

in scoring free composition; several say they mark it "as for English composition"; others reserve a percentage of marks to be given in this way and make an error count for the rest. It is a common practice to allot points partly for form and partly for linguistic accuracy. A well-known teacher gives 30 per cent each for grammar, vocabulary and matter, keeping 10 per cent to be added as a bonus for style. Another gives a bonus for successful treatment of difficult grammatical points. In one case the marking is based on "intelligibility to a foreigner", for which half the marks are awarded. It can be concluded that the free composition scale will be welcomed by teachers who are experimenting in this work.

Audition

A general question sought information as to the methods in use for teaching pupils to understand the spoken language, with subsidiary questions on the frequency of dictation and the use of *explication de mots*.

The commonest answers reported: reading of the text, oral questions on the text, dictation, object lessons, oral reproduction of stories, etc. Translation from passages read by the teacher is mentioned twice, and one instructor uses the completion drill in the grammar for oral practice.

Pantomimic teaching of verbs comes rather under the heading of vocabulary teaching. Memorization, games, tableaux vivants, pictures, are mentioned once each, and one or two teachers who appear to be specially interested in this branch of their work employ lantern lectures and the phonograph. Only one teacher notes the important principle of teaching oral comprehension by breath-

groups. Dictation is employed with varying frequency. A considerable group list it as a daily exercise, and as many more use it once a week. Others report "less often in the upper forms . . . rarely, never."

The process known as *explication de mots* is little used.

Tests

Tests in pronunciation are regularly used by only 12 teachers, several of whom are working in the province of Quebec, where such tests form part of the system. Grammar and translation tests are reported by nearly 50 teachers, most of whom also apply tests in composition; these take place at intervals of 1, 2, or 3 weeks.

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF TEACHERS APPLYING TESTS IN PRONUNCIATION, GRAMMAR, ETC., AT STATED INTERVALS

	at intervals of				
	1	2	3	4 weeks	indefinite
Pronunciation.....	4	1	4		3
Grammar.....	21	10	15	1	1
Translation.....	15	12	18	2	
Composition.....	20	6	15	1	1

SPECIAL PROBLEMS

Answers to questions in this section, while having little or no weight as scientific evidence, are valuable as showing the trend of opinion in the matters submitted for discussion.

*Age of Beginning*¹

Teachers who have had experience with pupils beginning languages in both elementary and secondary grades were asked to record their observations on the comparative achievement of the two groups. Answers were

¹The available evidence on this question is summarized in volume I

returned by 25 individuals to all or part of this section. Their replies are tabulated thus:

	Yes	No
Do early beginners matriculate sooner?.....	6	21
Do they rank higher?.....	16	2
Have they a more intelligent grasp of the work?.....	20	5
Does the early start merely result in spreading the work over a longer period?.....	12	10

A few teachers note that they find the early beginners better in vocabulary and in oral work.

Methods preferred

The second question in this section was intended to elicit the opinions of teachers as to the method best suited to attain the objective they had stated in Part I, but it was not found feasible to classify replies on this basis and the information has been tabulated without relation to a specific objective. For courses beginning in the elementary classes, 11 teachers advocate the direct method, and 5 the eclectic. For ordinary high school courses only 4 respondents favour the direct method, 6 use the procedure known as grammar-translation, and 42 prefer the eclectic method.

Pursuing this line of inquiry, a question was asked concerning choice of method when reading ability is the objective. In general, teachers were asked to state their preference between extensive reading and intensive study. In this connection it should be explained that the total amount of reading accomplished in a Canadian high school course of four years rarely exceeds 500 pages and is frequently much less. On the other hand the student of corresponding grade in the United States is likely to have read from 1,200 to 1,500 pages of similar material.

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF TEACHERS RECOMMENDING THE METHODS MENTIONED, WHEN ABILITY TO READ WITH UNDERSTANDING IS THE OBJECTIVE
In High School years

	1	2	3	4	5
Extensive oral practice.....	37	25	18	10	6
Much translation.....	3	11	13	10	4
Extensive reading, with explanation, little translation.....	5	12	19	22	20
Intensive study of small amount of reading material.....	13	18	14	7	5

Other Problems

Does practice in translating from the modern language into English tend noticeably to develop the power to translate from English? Yes, 23; no, 26; indefinite, 3.

Should translation be used only as a testing device? Yes, 23; no, 22.

Does the study of a modern language (2 years or more) tend definitely to increase (a) the pupil's knowledge of English grammar? Yes, 49; no, 6. (b) The pupil's English vocabulary? Yes, 49; no, 4.

Is it the practice to secure, in the case of each pupil in the modern language classes

	Yes	No
(a) His intelligence quotient?.....	11	32
(b) His previous record in modern language study?.....	33	8
(c) His standing in English?.....	29	14
(d) His rating in mathematics?.....	23	12

Have you ever experimented with a modern language class to discover how closely the intelligence quotients of the students correlate with their language achievement?

(a) As shown by their term grades in language study? Yes, 8; no, 34.

(b) As shown by special achievement tests in languages? Yes, 6; no, 33.

Are there any cases of apparent linguistic disability or incapacity not accompanied by low general intelligence? Yes, 32; no, 10.

Should separate language recitation groups be established for

	Yes	No
(a) Rapid language learners?	41	3
(b) Average language learners?	33	8
(c) Slow language learners?	42	2

If so, should segregation be made

(a) In the beginning, on the basis of some form of prognosis? Yes, 7; no, 14.

(b) After 2 to 6 weeks of trial work? Yes, 10.

(c) After the first term? Yes, 24.

(d) In second year classes? Yes, 24.

(e) In classes beyond second year? Yes, 10.

Is it advisable to have a provincial or municipal supervisor of modern languages? Yes, 38; no, 6.

TABLE SHOWING TEACHERS' OPINIONS CONCERNING RELATIVE AVERAGE SUCCESS OF (A) ENGLISH-SPEAKING AS COMPARED WITH (B) "NATIVE" TEACHERS

English-speaking teachers have	Success		
	More	Equal	Less
for 1st year students	15	8	9
for 2nd year students	13	10	7
for 3rd year students	12	11	6
for 4th year students	10	10	8
for 5th year students	11	14	7
for pronunciation	6	4	25
for spoken language	6	6	24
for grammar	23	7	4
for written language	13	16	4

Typical opinions on this question are quoted:

"In elementary and high school work I should always favour the native teacher, provided this teacher possesses a thorough knowledge of English, written and spoken, and has had some previous experience with Anglo-Saxon students, also provided that the native teacher has a pure French accent which is so often not the case."

"If a foreigner understands English perfectly he makes a capable teacher."

"If the native teacher is well-trained and understands the phonetic teaching of his language, there is no reason why he should not be as successful as the English-speaking teacher. The English-speaking teacher understands better the difficulties of the pupil."

"I have had experience for years with both English-speaking and native assistants. I am quite satisfied that the differences in success do not lie here, but in teaching ability. In the hands of a good teacher a native knowledge of the language is an aid; in those of a poor teacher a hindrance. To be as successful in every way as one of my English-speaking assistants is all that any one could ask."

"Native teachers usually lack system and are poor disciplinarians. There are exceptions, of course. They are most useful with small classes drafted off by the head of the department from the larger classes. I have found this plan splendid in actual experience."

THE TRAINING OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN CANADA

The systematic introduction of modern languages into secondary school curricula in Canada, together with the rapid increase in the numbers of students taking these subjects, has created a demand for better prepared and differently trained teachers. A general survey of present practice in teacher training was felt to be necessary in order to determine whether this demand is being adequately met by the universities and teacher-training institutions of Canada.

Shortly after Dr. Ryerson became Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada the need of some provision for the professional training of teachers engaged his attention, and in 1847 the first normal school was established in Canada.

While some beginnings of teacher training are found earlier, the first modern normal school was planned and established by Pestalozzi in Switzerland about the beginning of the nineteenth century. Building on this work the Germans established their first state normal schools in 1809 to train teachers for the new state school system which they were then creating. France established a superior normal school in 1808 to train teachers for the higher schools, and after 1830 a number of normal schools to train teachers for the elementary schools. While the United States obtained some of their ideas and inspiration for normal school development from German sources they had themselves been at work on the idea of teacher train-

ing. The first training school in America, a private institution, was established in 1823 by the Reverend Samuel R. Hall who opened a tuition school for the training of teachers at Concord, Vermont. In 1827 New York State began to give aid to the academies to help them train teachers, and in 1839 the state of Massachusetts was induced to duplicate a gift of \$10,000 to create the first state institution to be established in America for the training of teachers. New York followed suit in 1844 and Connecticut and Michigan in 1849.

Originally normal schools were established on the same basis as high schools. Pupils entered from the elementary schools and were given a three year and later a four year course, largely academic in nature. Up to about 1875 there was very little of a professional nature to teach. The first professional book in English published in America did not appear until 1829, and it was not until after 1865 that educational books began to appear in any great numbers. About 1900 the normal schools moved rapidly to a higher entrance basis, in many cases requiring high school graduation, and the professional course of training was reduced to two years. Since about 1920 there has been a marked tendency to expand the professional courses again to three or even four years, to add new instruction of an academic nature, to change the name to Teachers' College and to give a degree on the completion of the course.

As mentioned above the first normal school in Canada was established at Toronto in 1847. During Dr. Ryerson's first visit abroad he had occasion to study the normal schools of Prussia and other continental countries. He studied also the working of the normal school at Albany, New York, during a brief sojourn in the United States. Dr. Ryerson's efforts to establish a training school for

teachers were not sympathetically received in all quarters, as is shown by the following extract from a memorial sent to the provincial legislature in 1847 by the Gore district council. After a reference to the school in question as entirely unsuited to a country like Canada, the memorial continues, "Nor do your memorialists hope to provide qualified teachers by any other means in the present circumstances than securing as heretofore the services of those whose physical disabilities from age render this mode of obtaining a livelihood the only one suited to their decaying energies or by employing such of the newly arrived emigrants as are qualified for common school teachers, year by year as they come amongst us, and who will adopt this as a means of temporary support until their character and ability are known and turned to better account for themselves." This memorandum was sent to the other district councils in the hope of obtaining their support. The Colbourne district council took direct issue with the arguments above quoted and fortunately their attitude became finally the more popular one.

For many years the normal schools gave academic as well as professional instruction. In 1871, however, it was felt that the county grammar schools or high schools were quite adequate for the academic training of teachers. Since that time the work of the normal schools has been confined to professional courses and practice teaching.

In 1875 the growth of the school system necessitated the establishment of a second normal school at Ottawa and subsequently a third school was opened at London. Four more normal schools were established later, making a total of seven for Ontario. At the outset the required term of attendance was a half year but this was later lengthened to one year.

A professional school of a higher grade was the Provincial School of Pedagogy established at Toronto in 1890 for the purpose of training teachers for the high schools and collegiate institutes of the province. In 1897 this institution was transferred to Hamilton under the name of the Ontario Normal College. The maintenance of an institution of this type apart from the universities was felt to be a mistake and in 1907 it was replaced by faculties of education at the University of Toronto and at Queen's. This arrangement was continued until 1920 when these faculties of education were replaced by the Ontario College of Education.

In the other provinces of the Dominion teacher training developed along more or less the same lines as in Ontario, normal schools being established from time to time as the school population increased. There seems to be a growing tendency to establish faculties of education in the provincial universities for the training of secondary school teachers. Two provinces have already adopted this plan and several others have it under consideration.

In the following chapter will be found a statement of the opportunities available in Canada for the professional training of modern language teachers as well as the nature of and requirements for professional certificates and their academic prerequisites.

TEACHER TRAINING BY PROVINCES

In 1923 the Canadian Education Association published a booklet entitled: 'Conditions governing the granting of teachers' certificates in the various provinces of Canada'. This booklet while discussing the general conditions under which teachers' certificates are issued in the different provinces does not discuss the academic and professional training of teachers of modern languages.

In order to make comparisons possible the present study will treat the subject of teacher training in each province under the following heads:— I. The Place of modern languages in the curriculum. II. Teachers' certificates. III. Academic training required for the different classes of teachers' certificates: (a) General, (b) Special. IV. Professional training: (a) General, (b) Special. V. Recognition of extra-provincial certificates.

ALBERTA

I PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

In the new curriculum which went into effect in September, 1923, a two-unit course is offered in French and German in the first three years of the high school course and a one-unit course in the fourth year. It is therefore possible to take these languages during two years only of grades IX, X and XI. With one year in grade XII this renders possible a two or three years' course. However, the same work is covered in the two-unit course as in the old three years' course, the time per week having been increased.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

In order to teach in the high schools of Alberta, a teacher must hold one of the following certificates: academic, first class, second class.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Academic Certificate.

(a) This is the highest grade of certificate issued by the education department of Alberta. Candidates for this

certificate must hold the degree of B.A. or B.Sc. from a standard university.

(b) The requirement of a degree from a standard university does not necessarily imply any specialization in modern languages. Candidates vary greatly in their preparation. They may have had two years or three years of high school work only, or in addition they may have had two years, three years or four years of college work.

The University of Alberta makes provision in the third and fourth years for those students who wish to specialize in modern languages. The time given to the language varies from three to six hours weekly according as the language is principal or secondary. Training in oral work is combined with composition, but no course in general or departmental phonetics is provided. The study of literature covers the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries.

First Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must be of at least two years' standing as undergraduates in arts or must hold a grade XII certificate.

(b) These candidates may have had no modern language in their course, as it is not obligatory. If they begin a modern language in college, an elementary course is taken for which no credit is given until the second year of the language is completed. If a modern language is offered at matriculation these candidates may continue the study of this modern language for two years. Candidates holding grade XII certificates may have had at most three years of high school work.

Second Class Certificate.

(a) The minimum requirement for this class is a grade XI certificate or its equivalent. Grade XI

represents substantially the same standard as junior matriculation.

(b) Candidates for this certificate may have at most two years of high school French.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Academic Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate are university graduates, and they must have completed a course of normal training. This is a short session of four months in the Spring term. It is organized for advanced students, and treats especially the problems connected with administration and teaching in secondary schools. An important phase of the work is the opportunity for the observation of class-room organization and procedure as well as responsible teaching practice.

(b) No special courses on methods of teaching modern languages are given.

First Class Certificate.

(a) The normal course for these candidates covers a period of thirty-three to thirty-six weeks. Observation and practice-teaching are an important part of the course.

(b) No special training is given in methods of teaching modern languages.

Second Class Certificate.

(a) The normal course covers the same period as for the first class certificate and about the same type of work.

(b) There is no special training in methods in modern languages.

All of the above-mentioned certificates are *interim* and

valid for one year. They become permanent when the following conditions have been met:

1. One year's teaching experience in Alberta Schools.
2. Satisfactory reports made by an inspector of schools as to the quality of work done.
3. Completion of a prescribed reading course, details of which can be obtained from the department of education.

From the analysis given above it is plain that no provision is made for special professional training of modern language teachers although modern languages have an important place in the high school course of study. (Comment by the Alberta supervisor of schools: "We are not in quite so unsatisfactory a situation as regards the teaching of modern languages in our high schools as this would seem to indicate. The majority of the teachers in charge of modern language departments in the high schools of the province have come to us from other provinces or from the Old Country and have had more or less complete preparation for the teaching of these subjects. The department has in mind proceeding with the organization of a Teachers' College at as early a date as finances and the demands of an adequate student body will justify.") It must be observed too that the honour graduate in modern languages of the University of Alberta has the academic qualifications for specialist but takes only the general course of professional training.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

The minimum requirement for the granting of regular teachers' certificates to persons receiving their training in the province of Alberta is grade XI academic standing and an eight months' course of normal school training.

Teachers coming from other provinces who present official evidence of similar qualifications are recognized as eligible for similar standing, and are granted an interim certificate which is made permanent after one year's successful teaching as shown by the reports of the inspector and the completion of a prescribed course of reading.

BRITISH COLUMBIA

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

French is begun in grade IX and continued through grades X, XI and XII. German is offered in grades XI and XII. This renders possible four years of French and two years of German.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

In order to teach in a high school or superior school in British Columbia the teacher must hold one of the following certificates: academic, first class.

The department of education issues also second and third class certificates, but as these entitle the holder to teach in elementary schools only, they do not concern this investigation.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Academic Certificate.

(a) This is the highest grade of certificate issued by the British Columbia department of education and entitles the holder to teach in a high school. Candidates for this certificate must have a degree in arts, in science or in literature from a recognized British, Canadian or Colonial university.

(b) The requirement of a degree in arts, in science or in literature does not imply any specialization in modern languages and the candidates vary greatly in their training. They may have had high school work only (four years of French and two of German), two years, three years or four years of college work after the regular high school course, or may have specialized in modern languages in an honour course.

In the University of British Columbia an honour course is offered in French but not in German. A student may, however, elect advanced German courses in connection with the honour course in French. The honour course in French implies three hours weekly in the first and second years and an intensive course of at least nine hours weekly in the third and fourth years. Great stress is placed on oral work, and training in composition is included in the work of each year. No course in general phonetics is required, but use is made of phonetics in the first and second year courses in French (see also Professional Training). The courses of the third and fourth years deal with various periods in the development of French literature and include intensive work on certain phases of French thought.

First Class Certificate.

(a) This certificate entitles the holder to teach in an elementary or superior school. French being begun in grade IX may be taught in the superior schools. Candidates for this certificate must have a senior matriculation certificate (grade XII) or its equivalent.

(b) As a modern language is not obligatory these candidates may have had none in their course. They may, however, have had French for four years and German for two.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Academic Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must complete the teacher training course for university graduates conducted by the University of British Columbia. The length of this course is approximately thirty weeks.

First term. During this term methods courses in elementary school subjects are given under the supervision of the university. Observation assignments, and practice-teaching in the elementary school are required.

Second term. The methods courses given this term by members of the university staff are confined to high school subjects. The general subjects include educational psychology, history and principles of education, school administration and law.

(b) Training in the special subjects is obtained by observation assignments and practice-teaching. Approximately 100 hours are required (40 hours in the elementary school and 60 hours in the high school). Three courses in methods are required, two obligatory and one optional.

In the course on modern language methods one third of the time is devoted to a study of phonetics.

At the close of the session, the successful candidates receive from the university a diploma in education, and from the provincial department of education the academic certificate.

First Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate receive their professional training in the provincial normal schools, at Vancouver or Victoria. The session has a

duration of thirty-six weeks. The course includes general pedagogical subjects and observation and practice-teaching. The diplomas are not awarded solely upon the ability to pass written examinations, although such are required. With these, however, are grouped the reports of the staff on general behaviour, attitude, scholarship, progress and aptitude for teaching.

(b) These candidates receive no special training in language teaching other than that of the practice and observation lessons.

The certificates cited above are *interim* and may be made permanent after successful teaching experience.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

Applications from extra-provincial teachers for standing in British Columbia are considered on their merits. In a general way, however, provided the academic standing and professional training on which certificates were issued meet the British Columbia requirements in every respect, the procedure is as follows:

Candidates from Alberta, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan holding first class and second class professional certificates are granted interim certificates of the same grade in British Columbia.

In the case of the other provinces, only certificates of first class and higher rank are recognized. In any case where the length of the course of professional training is not as long as in British Columbia, candidates are required to take a short course of normal school training.

Second class certificates are accepted from Alberta, Manitoba and Saskatchewan because in 1919 these provinces, together with British Columbia, entered into an informal agreement for the mutual recognition of teachers' certificates.

MANITOBA

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

In Manitoba the course of studies is planned for eleven grades, eight in the elementary school and three in the secondary school. In collegiate institutes a twelfth grade is added when conditions permit.

Pupils of the high schools and collegiate institutes are given a wide option in choosing subjects and courses but most students select one of three courses: the teachers' course, the matriculation course or the combined course.

The teachers' course makes no requirements in language other than English and admits to the normal school on the completion of grades XI and XII. The matriculation course requiring one of Latin, Greek, French or German, admits to the university upon the completion of grade XI (junior matriculation). The combined course which requires one foreign language (not necessarily a modern language) admits to the university or the normal school on the completion of grade XI. The majority of pupils choose the combined course.

French is offered in grades IX, X, XI, and XII and German in grades IX, X, and XI. It is therefore possible for high school graduates to have four years of French or three years of German. Some years ago Manitoba adopted the junior high school plan by which pupils of the VII, VIII and IX grades form a group for special organization. One feature of this organization is provision for the teaching of Latin and French. Even in schools not organized as junior high schools (should they contain pupils in grades VII and VIII) provision is made for

teaching these languages. It follows that wherever the junior high school has been introduced, pupils who choose French in the elementary school and continue it until they leave the secondary school on the completion of grade XI, may have three or five years of French according to the grade in which they began. The final examination in grade XI is the same for all pupils whether they have taken five or three years' study.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The certificates required in order to teach in schools doing high school work in Manitoba are: interim first class professional grade "A" and collegiate, interim second class professional. The department of education also issues third class certificates but these permit the bearer to teach in elementary schools only.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Interim First Class Professional Grade "A" and Collegiate Certificate.

(a) This is the highest certificate issued by the education department of Manitoba. Candidates for this certificate must hold a degree in arts or science from a recognized university.

(b) The requirement of a degree from a recognized university does not imply any specialization in modern languages and candidates vary greatly in their preparation. They may have had from three to five years of French or three years of German in high school. This may be followed by one, two, three or four years of French and German in the general course. The work of the general course includes translation, oral work and composition, and in the third and fourth year a study of literature. Students entering from grade XI complete

this course normally in four years. The University of Manitoba also offers an honour course of five years' work after grade XI. The two courses are identical in the first three years. In the fourth and fifth years of the honour course the student devotes his whole time to two subjects of eight hours class-room work each per week. These subjects must be chosen from among those successfully pursued in the third year. The work of the honour course includes study of the different literary periods, translation, composition and oral practice. No course in general or departmental phonetics is required.

Interim Second Class Professional Certificate.

(a) Candidates must have completed grade XII, although a candidate who has completed grade XI, who has taken a course of professional training and has received a third class certificate, may raise this to a second class certificate by fulfilling certain requirements of the department of education.

(b) Candidates who have completed grade XII examination may have had four to six years of French and three years of German, but as modern languages are not obligatory they may have omitted them.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Interim First Class Professional Grade "A" and Collegiate Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate are university graduates and must complete a course of normal training lasting from September until June.

In order to be eligible for a permanent first class certificate, the reading course regulations must be complied with, and an inspector's recommendation for a permanent certificate must be submitted to the department.

The course includes a study of the science of education, school management, lectures and discussion on methods of preparing, studying and teaching the various subjects of the elementary school programme. During the second term, emphasis is placed on the work of the junior and senior high schools.

An important part of the work is the observation of teaching in schools conducted by trained teachers, and the practical teaching of classes under the direction of competent critics.

(b) Provision is made for special instruction in the teaching of English, history, mathematics, science, Latin and French. For this work the normal school has assistance from specialists in the Winnipeg collegiate institutes.

Interim Second Class Professional.

(a) Candidates for this certificate are required to complete a year's course of normal training. The general pedagogical work is similar to that of the course offered for first class certificates. Grade XI students who have completed a similar course are granted an interim third class certificate which may be raised to a permanent second class certificate on the recommendation of an inspector and the completion of the reading course requirements.

(b) No special training in modern language methods is provided.

It is to be noted that all certificates granted after normal training are interim certificates. In order to obtain the corresponding permanent certificate the candidate must have had successful teaching experience certified by an inspector and must have completed the reading course required by the department of education.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

Teachers' credentials from outside the province of Manitoba presented to the department of education are considered on their merits. Credit is given for recognized training elsewhere.

In order that the standing may be decided the following official credentials must be presented.

1. Academic (non-professional, secondary school, scholarship) credentials complete.

2. Professional (normal school, training college, faculty of education) credentials complete.

3. Statement of validity from the authority issuing the above-mentioned credentials which shall also indicate the academic and professional grounds on which they are granted.

4. Certificate of character dated within three months of the time of application.

5. Recent inspectors' reports.

6. In the case of married women, documentary evidence of change of name.

NEW BRUNSWICK

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The only modern language taught in the schools of New Brunswick is French. It is begun in grade IX and continued through grades X and XI. Grade XII is so rare in the schools of New Brunswick as to be negligible. It is confined almost entirely to the city of St. John. Those who pass the examinations of grade XII are admitted to the second year of the university. French may be taught in the superior schools also, in grades IX, X and XI.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

Five classes of teachers' licences are issued by the education department of New Brunswick; grammar school, superior, first class, second class and third class. First, second and third class licences are for elementary work. The only classes that concern this investigation are the grammar school and superior licences. The grammar school licence qualifies the holder to become principal of a grammar school. The superior licence qualifies the holder to become principal of a superior school or assistant in a grammar school. Superior schools must be equipped for ordinary elementary work, and in addition, must do certain secondary school work, the amount depending on the number of teachers. No school may be classed as a superior school which does not have at least ten pupils pursuing studies above grade VII.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Grammar School Licence.

(a) This is the highest class of teachers' licence issued by the department. Candidates for this class must have completed three years of high school work (grade XI) including Latin, Greek (or French and logic) and higher mathematics. This same certificate is issued to graduates of chartered universities.

(b) As may be seen, the modern language training may vary greatly. While the candidate who has completed grade XI may have had three years of French, this subject is not obligatory. Even the university graduate may have studied no modern language. Four year courses are offered in French and German, and one institution offers also three years of Spanish and two

years of Italian. Provision is made in the third and fourth years for specialization in modern languages. This special or honour work includes a survey of literature with intensive study of certain periods. Honour students are required to pass an oral examination. Emphasis is placed upon accuracy of pronunciation, but only one institution requires a course in phonetics.

Superior Class Licence.

(a) Candidates for this class of licence must have completed grade XI and included in the course Latin and trigonometry.

(b) French is the only modern language taught in the schools but it is not obligatory.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Grammar School Licence.

(a) All candidates for teachers' licences must pass a preliminary examination before they are admitted to the normal school. The examinations for the different classes of licences cover approximately the same subjects but the questions are graded as to difficulty. For students desiring to enter the French department of the normal school there is a preliminary examination on the same subjects and with the same standards, except that for these students there is a paper on French grammar which may be written in French, and the average of the marks in English and French grammar is the standard of the award.

The length of the session is approximately nine months.

Graduates in arts of a chartered college may be given the grammar school licence without attendance at the normal school, provided they pass the closing examination and give a practical demonstration of their know-

ledge of methods before the principal of the normal school and one of the professors of the university who shall report to the chief superintendent.

The following subjects are required of all candidates: school system (New Brunswick), school management, teaching (a written examination), industrial drawing, reading and elocution

The professional course also includes history and science of education, observation and practice-teaching.

(b) Modern languages are not included in the course, nor in the closing examination, except that French and logic may be substituted for Greek. There is no provision for special training of the teachers of French except in the case of French students of the French department of the normal school who are being trained for French schools.

Superior Class Licence.

(a) The length of the normal term is the same as for the grammar school licence and the course of instruction practically the same. The questions, however, are graded in difficulty for the different classes of licences.

(b) There is no special training therefore for teachers of French.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES

The Province of New Brunswick has no reciprocity in teachers' licences with any province except Nova Scotia, nor are outside teachers admitted except upon undergoing examination for the various classes of licences. If the applicants are college graduates in arts or hold a professional certificate they are, however, exempted from normal school attendance.

Teachers holding certificates of the province of Nova Scotia are given equivalent standing.

NOVA SCOTIA

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The modern languages taught in the Nova Scotia schools are French and German. French is begun in grade IX and German in grade X. This renders possible four years of French and three years of German for those students who complete grade XII.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The following teachers' certificates are issued by the education department of Nova Scotia: academic, superior first, first, second and third class. Of these licences the academic and superior first are "suitable" for high school departments.

The principal of a county academy must hold an academic licence. All the other classes of teachers may be employed where the trustees desire them, the limitation being practically the sufficiency of scholarship for the classes taught.

Definition of Terms.

Ordinary (low) Pass implies in each grade an average of 50% on a group of subjects or papers with none below 30%.

Teachers' (high) Pass implies an average of 60% on the same groups with no subject below 40% and at least 50% in English.

University Graduates' Testing Examination is an examination which all graduates must pass who desire the academic class of licence. The examination consists of two series of papers, the higher of university "graduation distinction" standard, the lower of university "graduation pass" standard.

The university graduates' examination "pass" requires at least one paper in each of the following groups, English, foreign languages, mathematics, and the sciences with:

1. A pass (50%) in at least *one subject* of the higher standard (major subject).
2. A pass in five other subjects of the lower standard (minor subjects).
3. Certificates of the following university courses of approved equivalents taken and passed by candidates shall be imperative and must be taken later than the first year of the university course: ethics, political economy, sociological science, modern philosophy, history.

*Minimum Professional Qualification
Examination (M.P.Q.).*

The title of this examination explains itself. It is a substitute for all or part of the professional training at the normal school. It is a purely professional examination including such subjects as school law and form, theory and practice of teaching hygiene and temperance, school management, history of education and pedagogy.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Academic Class Licence.

(a) This is the highest certificate granted by the education department of Nova Scotia. Candidates for this certificate must hold a degree from a recognized university. No university shall be recognized unless the course is proven to be one of at least four years following the provincial high school high pass (see Definition of Terms) of grade XII or a matriculation standard shown to be its full equivalent. These students must also pass the *university graduates' testing examination*. (See Definition of Terms, page 565).

(b) The requirement of a degree does not imply any specialization in modern languages, and but little provision is made for it. French and German are taught in all universities of Nova Scotia. Spanish is taught in two universities and Italian in one. The courses in all the universities offer four years' continuous work and include courses in the history of literature, in composition, conversation, and pronunciation. No course in general phonetics is given, but the phonetic method is used to a limited extent in teaching pronunciation.

Superior First Class (A) Licence.

(a) Candidates for this licence must hold a *teachers' pass certificate* (see Definition of Terms, page 565) of grade XII. The degree of B.A. or B.Sc. from a recognized university may be accepted in qualifying for a teachers' licence as the equivalent of a *teachers' high pass* (see Definition of Terms, page 565) of grade XII. For this class of licence the graduate of a university is not required to take the *university graduates' testing examination*.

(b) Candidates for this degree vary greatly in modern language training. They may have had one to four years of high school French and one to three years of high school German. If they are graduates they may in addition, have had one to four years of college training.

First Class (B) Licence.

(a) Candidates for this licence must hold grade XI *teachers' pass certificate* (see Definition of Terms, page 565).

(b) These candidates may have had one to three years of French and one or two years of German.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Academic Class Licence.

(a) This class of licence is awarded only to university

graduates. They must first pass the *university graduates' testing examination* (see Definition of Terms, page 565) and then complete a normal course lasting from September to Christmas. An alternative shorter course partaking more of the nature of an examination on a prescribed reading course on pedagogic subjects is offered during six weeks in May and June. For admission to this course an examination is necessary covering those mathematical, scientific and pedagogical subjects of the high school and *M.P.Q.* course (see Definition of Terms, page 566) in which the candidate has no provincial or collegiate ranking.

The candidate may be relieved from part attendance at the normal school provided: (1) he has made an academic pass (average of 65% with no paper less than 55%) on the *M.P.Q.* (see Definition of Terms, page 566) syllabus, (2) has obtained the prescribed physical training certificate, (3) has taught successfully for at least two years, one of which must be in a department of high school grade, and (4) has demonstrated satisfactory professional proficiency in the art of teaching before the normal college faculty by whom the candidate shall also be examined *viva voce*.

The courses at the normal school, both long and short, include a detailed examination of the course of study of the schools of Nova Scotia. In addition, students receive specific instruction in psychology and pedagogical theory and method, and are given an opportunity to put into practice the principles acquired. The observation and practice-teaching is carried on in the schools of Truro.

(b) Courses in written and spoken French may be given to pupils familiar with the accidence of the language. "The result which these students may hope to attain is the mastery of the pronunciation of the language and the power to apply their knowledge in speaking and writing

fluently in every-day French involving a vocabulary of about a thousand words, in effect to be set on the high road to a fair mastery of the speech and literature. The method used in the normal college is one adaptable to the high schools of Canada."

There is no special training for teachers of German. Italian and Spanish are not taught in the schools.

Superior First Class (A) Licence.

(a) The candidate must take superior first rank in the normal school course (average of 60% with no subject below 55%). The term for this class is from September to Christmas. It may be shortened under conditions similar to those applying to the academic class.

(b) Special training is provided in methods in French, as in the case of the academic class.

First Class (B) Licence.

(a) Candidates must hold a certificate of first rank (average of 60% with no subject below 50%) from the normal school or first rank on the *M.P.Q.* examination.

The other licences, *i.e.*, second and third class, are usually found only in the elementary schools, and do not concern the teaching of modern languages.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES

"On the recommendation of the superintendent of education and the provincial normal college, normal-trained teachers from any part of the British Empire (or other country reciprocating) may be awarded a temporary licence for one year of a class as high as the scholarship and professional training of the candidate may warrant. On the advance of the candidate's qualifications according to the Nova Scotia regulation, and on the inspector's

recommendation, the licence may be continued for a subsequent year until a permanent licence is qualified for. (a) Application for such temporary licence should be made to the superintendent with (1) a certificate of good standing in the profession at date from the chief education authority of the province or country which granted the licence and (2) certificates and programmes proving in detail the character, scholarship, professional training and experience of the candidate."

Manual of School Law, Nova Scotia, 1921.

ONTARIO

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The modern languages taught in the Ontario schools are French, German, Italian and Spanish. These languages may be offered in any high school but Italian is found in one high school only. In addition, French and German may be offered in continuation schools. French and German are also among the optional subjects for form V of the public schools, and may be offered, provided the teacher of the subject holds at least a first or second class certificate and has passed a departmental or a university examination in the language he undertakes to teach; or, in lieu thereof, a special certificate granted by the minister of education on submission of proof of academic and professional qualifications enabling him to teach the language in a public or separate school.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The following classes of teachers' certificates are issued by the education department of Ontario; interim high school specialist, interim ordinary high school assistant, first class, second class.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Interim High School Specialist Certificate.

(a) The minimum requirement for this class of certificate is an honour degree in arts from any one of: the University of Toronto, Queen's University, McMaster University, and the University of Western Ontario.

Honour degrees in arts from other British universities on courses which are deemed to be the equivalent of those prescribed in the calendars of the four Ontario universities may be accepted for specialist standing.

The standard for each year shall be that prescribed by the universities for candidates taking honour courses with the additional provision that in the final honour work of the department in which specialist standing is sought, the standard shall be at least second class honours (66%).

Any case not covered by the above regulations shall be decided by the minister of education upon the recommendation of a university.

(b) There are two types of honour courses in modern languages in Ontario:

In one of these all students who elect modern languages in the first years continue the same courses. In these courses an attempt is made to prepare the student in the use of the foreign language as an instrument of study in connection with other subjects. The amount of time devoted to oral work in these two years varies greatly. In the third and fourth year of this type of course students may continue as general course students or specialize in modern languages. In the latter case they follow intensive courses dealing with literature and language together with training in pronunciation and the oral use of the language.

In the other type of course honour students enter with

honour matriculation and follow courses distinct from those of general course (or pass) students.

In the honour courses the instruction is planned for those who expect to specialize in modern languages. The various literary periods are studied, and an intensive study is made of representative writers. In the upper years, the courses are conducted in part at least in the foreign language.

The amount of time devoted to pronunciation and the oral use of the language varies considerably in the different institutions. In some, courses in general and departmental phonetics are obligatory together with special oral classes during each year of the course. In others, courses in general or departmental phonetics are neither obligatory nor offered. In all, however, the students acquire at least an elementary knowledge of phonetics in connection with their study of pronunciation.

Some institutions make no provision for special classes in conversation, this training being limited to the work in composition classes. All provide training in grammar and composition in each year of the course.

Interim Ordinary High School Assistant.

(a) The minimum requirement for this certificate is the degree of bachelor or master of arts, bachelor or master of science, bachelor of commerce, bachelor of applied science from a British university after a regular university course approved by the minister of education as to entrance requirements and content of the undergraduate courses. Each applicant must have upper school or honour matriculation standing in English and history and mathematics or the equivalent of such standing.

(b) It is to be observed that candidates vary greatly in their modern language training. They may have had

the modern language in the high school only, or may have continued the study of it from one to four years in the university.

The type of work differs greatly in different institutions. The courses of the first two years are largely linguistic and are intended to prepare the student entering with pass matriculation in the use of the foreign language as an instrument of study in connection with other subjects. They aim at giving a good intelligible pronunciation and the power to read rapidly. Those students who continue the work in the third and fourth years are given a survey course in the literature of the modern language studied together with more advanced work in composition and pronunciation.

The amount of oral work varies greatly in different institutions. In some, courses in oral French are provided for general course students but not required. In others, oral courses are neither required nor provided. In all, a certain amount of oral training is given in connection with the composition classes.

Training in pronunciation is usually on a phonetic basis although with general course students the phonetic side is not stressed.

First Class Certificate.

(a) This certificate qualifies the holder for a position as teacher in a public school or as assistant in a grade B or C, continuation school. The minimum requirement is honour matriculation or certificates of having passed the departmental examination in certain prescribed subjects. This does not necessarily imply training in modern languages as the candidate may have taken no modern language and in that case is not qualified to teach modern languages, as French and German (the languages

optional in form V of the public school and in continuation schools) may be taken only in a school where the teacher of the subject holds at least a first or second class certificate and has passed a departmental or a university examination in the language he desires to teach.

Thus, the teachers of these languages may have completed middle or upper school French or German.

(b) As can be seen, this implies no specialization in the languages but merely certificates to the effect that the candidate has passed the departmental examinations in prescribed texts and composition.

Second Class Certificate.

(a) This certificate qualifies the holder for a position as teacher in a public school. The candidate must have completed pass matriculation, or its equivalent, or present certificates proving that he has passed the departmental examinations in certain prescribed subjects.

(b) Modern languages are not obligatory in this course but may be presented as part of the pass matriculation.

These candidates may teach French or German in the fifth form of the public school where these languages may be offered as optional subjects.

The teacher must, however, hold at least a first or second class certificate and have passed a departmental or a university examination in the language he undertakes to teach, or hold a special certificate granted by the minister of education on submission of proof of academic and professional qualifications enabling him to teach the language in a public or separate school.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Ontario teachers of modern languages receive their

professional training in the Ontario College of Education or in one of the normal schools. After having satisfied the academic conditions, applicants are admitted to the normal schools as candidates for first and second class certificates and to the Ontario College of Education as candidates for ordinary high school assistants' certificates, or high school specialists' certificates.

Candidates for ordinary high school assistants' certificates in the Ontario College of Education may take concurrently the course for first class public school certificates but must have complied with the academic conditions prescribed for candidates for ordinary high school assistants' certificates.

High School Specialist's Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must already hold, or be candidates for the ordinary high school assistants' certificates. Thus, these candidates take the general training outlined under ordinary high school assistants' certificates (a).

(b) In addition each specialist must take two seminar periods per week throughout the session and also special observation and practice-teaching in the specialist department in which the candidate is an applicant for a certificate. The seminar lays stress upon the consideration of the value, aim and methods of linguistic training, the relation of linguistic training to literary culture, history of methods formerly employed in the teaching of modern languages in the secondary schools of France, Germany, Great Britain and the United States; the necessity for better methods in Ontario; the direct method illustrated in the class-room; a study of French life, manners and institutions; the importance of pronunciation; the value and use of phonetic symbols, use of phonetic charts, and wall

pictures; typical lessons in advanced grammar, conversation, translation, sight reading, prose composition, free reproduction exercises, dictation and audition; writing and correction of passages in composition; consideration of books helpful to the teacher; the extent of the courses in the upper school; writing essays on allotted subjects.

Ordinary High School Assistant's Certificate.

(a) The course of training for this certificate (to be taken also by candidates for high school specialists' certificates) consists of two parts.

Part I: The science of education, school management and law, English, history, geography, and (a) Latin and French or German, or Spanish or Greek or (b) Mathematics and science.

Part II: Observation and practice-teaching.

The following introductory work is taken up at the beginning of the session, (a) about 20 lectures upon the general method of the recitation in the science of education, (b) supervised observation and practice lessons (about 10 of each) in the different grades or forms of the high schools.

Instruction in the special methodology of the subjects of the high school course is accompanied by a review from the academic standpoint of such portions of each subject as may be necessary to determine the scholarship of the students and to illustrate the methods of instruction in that subject, dealing in particular with those parts of the course that are difficult of presentation. So far as conditions permit the programme of instruction is organized on the basis of intensive study of a few subjects at a time.

The observation work begins in the third week of the session, and practice-teaching in the fifth week. Exclusive

of the introductory work the programme of instruction for each student includes at least 50 observation lessons and 30 practice-teaching lessons. Candidates must choose three major and three minor teaching subjects. In each of the major subjects they must teach 10 lessons and in each of the minor subjects 3, making a total of 39.

(b) For candidates who choose a modern language the special work is as follows:

INTRODUCTORY: Importance of the study of a modern language: aims of the study.

STUDY OF METHODS: A comparison of methods in view of present conditions in the schools, *e.g.*, the age and attainments of pupils, the size of classes, allotment of time, text-books in use, regulations governing the teacher; illustrative lessons.

PRONUNCIATION: Study of phonetics; theory and practice.

ELEMENTARY CLASSES: Classes conducted without a text-book; conversation lessons; how to make use of the objects of the class room, pictures and drawings, unison work; variety and interest; dictation; note-books and their correction; picture lessons; necessity for thorough drill.

GRAMMAR: Inductive and deductive teaching; grammatical rules and their value; special illustrative lessons on essentials.

TRANSLATION INTO ENGLISH: Importance; aims; methods of conducting this recitation. Special consideration of selected passages from the reader and the authors prescribed for junior matriculation.

COMPOSITION: Free reproduction; original essays; writing of letters; methods of correction; training in the use of the dictionary.

First Class Certificate.

Candidates for this certificate receive their training at one of the Ontario normal schools. The course may also be taken in the Ontario College of Education concurrently with the course for ordinary high school assistant's certificate. Candidates taking the course at the Ontario College of Education must be university graduates.

(a) In addition to observation and practice-teaching, religious instruction, and the work of the literary society, courses of study for interim first class certificates consist of the following:

Group I.

The science of education, school management, literature and advanced reading, composition, grammar, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, history, geography, and two of Latin, Greek, French, German or Spanish, biology, physics and chemistry.

Group II.

Primary reading, spelling, elementary science, nature study, agriculture and horticulture, vocal music, art, writing, physical culture, manual training, household science (for women), hygiene, library methods.

Observation and Practice-Teaching

Each teacher-in-training shall spend at least four periods per week (in Ontario College of Education, five or six) of forty-five minutes each, or the equivalent thereof in the work of observation and practice-teaching.

Each teacher-in-training shall submit written reports of at least forty observation lessons (in the Ontario College of Education, fifty) and shall teach at least twenty lessons (in the Ontario College of Education, thirty) in addition to the introductory practice-teaching course.

(b) The special work required of those candidates

choosing a modern language is as follows: introductory; importance of the study of a modern language; aims of the study; general instructions in regard to conducting classes for the purpose of helping the student to profit from observation lessons.

HISTORY OF METHODS: Consideration of methods formerly employed or still in vogue; the beginnings of modern language study; the grammar method; the natural method; the reading method; the psychological method of Gouin; the direct method as used at present in Great Britain and other countries.

STUDY OF METHODS: A comparison of methods in view of present conditions in the schools, *e.g.*, the age and attainments of pupils, the size of classes, allotment of time, text-books in use, regulations governing the teacher; illustrative lessons.

PRONUNCIATION: Study of phonetics, the international phonetic alphabet; phonetic texts and dictionaries; drill in pronunciation; oral work; conversation; use of the phonograph.

ELEMENTARY CLASSES: Classes conducted without a text-book; the study of sounds; conversation lessons; how to make use of the objects of the class-room, pictures, and drawings; value of unison work; variety and interest; dictation; note-books and their correction; books and pictures; necessity for thorough drill.

GRAMMAR: Inductive and deductive teaching; grammatical rules and their value; special illustrative lessons on essentials; special review lessons.

TRANSLATION INTO ENGLISH: When to introduce a reader; the grammatical preparation necessary; idio-

matic translation; methods of conducting the recitation; exercises in translation and interpretation from the authors prescribed for the middle school examination.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

In all cases of teachers who have completed courses of training in other provinces or dominions, the holders of such certificates are required to submit for inspection their certificates and certified evidence in detail of the courses completed.

The holders of such certificates whose academic standing is satisfactory and who have completed a normal school course of one year are granted provisional standing and permitted to qualify for an interim certificate by passing the Ontario final examinations.

Candidates who have qualified for their professional certificates by a short course of normal training are required to obtain training equivalent to that given in Ontario by attending a normal school for a portion of the school year.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

Primary education in Prince Edward Island consists of grades I to VIII in the public schools. Secondary education consists of grades IX and X in the public schools and first and second years (grades XI and XII) in the Prince of Wales College and provincial normal school. The only modern language taught is French. It is begun in grade IX and may be continued through grades X, XI and XII. In grade XII a beginning course in Greek may be substituted for French.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

Teachers in the schools of Prince Edward Island must hold a first or second class certificate.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

First Class Certificate.

(a) The candidate for this certificate must have completed the work of the second year in the Prince of Wales College. This is equivalent to the work of grade XII. Greek is offered as an option for French in this grade.

(b) These candidates must have had French for three years, as French is required in grades IX, X, XI. They may continue it in the second and third years of the Prince of Wales College, in which case they will have had five years of French.

Second Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must have completed the first year of the Prince of Wales college. This is equivalent to the work of grade XII. Greek is offered as an option for French in this grade.

(b) These candidates must have had French for three years as French is required in grades IX, X, XI. They may continue it in the second and third years of the Prince of Wales College, in which case they will have had five years of French.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

(a) Candidates desiring to obtain teachers' certificates must have completed the required normal training at the provincial normal school. These courses may be taken concurrently with the first and second year work at the Prince of Wales College. The normal work includes

courses on school management and school laws, psychology and educational methods, and observation and practice-teaching. All certificates are provisional but become permanent after two years' successful teaching. The holder of a diploma from a chartered college or university or recognized training school may be granted a certificate. In practice any person holding the degree of B.A. is granted a first class teacher's certificate.

(b) There is no special training in methods of teaching French and no attention is paid to phonetics.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

Applicants from other provinces who can show proof that they have received the necessary academic and professional training are given an interim certificate, and if they receive a favourable report from the inspector are granted a permanent certificate after two year's teaching.

QUEBEC

The public schools in the province of Quebec are under the direction of the council of public instruction. This council consists of two committees, the catholic committee and the protestant committee, which have charge of the catholic and protestant schools, respectively. The schools may be French or English. Thus, there are French catholic schools and English catholic schools, French protestant schools and English protestant schools.

The modern languages taught in these schools are English and French. English is the second language in the French schools and French in the English schools. The methods, the time of beginning the language, and the time allowed weekly are the same for English and French when they are taught as second languages.

CATHOLIC SCHOOLS.

The catholic schools of the province of Quebec are divided into infant schools (*écoles maternelles*), primary elementary schools (*écoles primaires élémentaires*), primary vocational schools (*écoles primaires complémentaires*), schools of domestic science (*écoles ménagères*), and normal schools (*écoles normales*).

INFANT SCHOOLS: These schools receive children of three to six years of age, and the work is more or less a preparation for the work of the primary elementary school. For pupils of five or six years of age there is a *classe enfantine* which serves as a special introduction to the primary elementary schools.

PRIMARY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: This school is preceded by a preparatory course (*cours préparatoire*) of one year. This course is not subdivided and may be omitted by those pupils who have taken the *classe enfantine* of the infant school. The primary elementary school is divided into three courses: *inférieur, moyen, supérieur*. The duration of each of these courses is two years. With the preparatory course, this makes seven years.

PRIMARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOL: The length of this course is two years and there is a beginning of specialization. A certain number of subjects are common to all students, but four principal sections have been established: agricultural, domestic science, commercial and industrial. In arranging the sections the number of students, their special aptitudes, and the desires of parents and pupils are taken into account. The agricultural section is for rural schools, the domestic science for girls' schools, and the commercial and industrial for city schools.

NORMAL SCHOOLS: These are specially charged with the

training of teachers for the French schools of Quebec. The length of the course is three years but under certain circumstances it may be shortened. (See Professional Training, page 585).

I. POSITION OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE CURRICULUM.

The modern languages taught in the catholic schools of Quebec are English in the French schools and French in the English schools. The regulations require that the study of these languages be begun in the second year of the *cours moyen* of the primary elementary schools. This means ordinarily the fourth year of school. In important centers, however, where a knowledge of English or French is imperative, these languages may be begun in the second year of the *cours inférieur*. The study of these languages is obligatory throughout the whole course of the elementary and primary vocational schools and also throughout the three years of the normal school course.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

Two certificates or diplomas are granted by the catholic normal schools, the elementary diploma (*brevet élémentaire*) for primary elementary schools and the superior diploma (*brevet supérieur*) for primary vocational schools.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

The academic training for teachers in the catholic schools is obtained partly in the primary elementary schools and partly in the normal schools. The work done in the normal schools will be treated under professional training.

Superior Diploma.

(a) In order to be a candidate for this certificate the applicant must have completed the work of the primary elementary school and hold an elementary normal school diploma. Otherwise the applicant must pass an examination on the following subjects of the first year of the elementary normal school course: catechism, composition, dictation, analysis, arithmetic. This examination admits the pupil to the second year of the elementary normal school course which serves as a preparation for the course for the superior diploma. Applicants admitted in this way must undergo a special examination in theoretical and practical pedagogy.

(b) Students who have completed this course will have had seven to nine years of English or French in primary elementary, primary vocational and normal schools.

Elementary Diploma.

(a) In order to be a candidate for this certificate the candidate must pass an examination on the following subjects of the last year of the primary elementary school: catechism, French (dictation, analysis, composition), history of Canada, arithmetic.

(b) Candidates must have had four years of English or French in the primary elementary schools, and are required to continue the study of the second language during the normal course.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

The training at the normal school is both academic and professional. The courses for the two certificates are as follows:

Superior Diploma.

(a) To be admitted to the course for this diploma the

candidate must have completed the course for the elementary diploma or have been admitted to the second year of that course which then serves as an introduction to the course for the superior diploma. As a general rule no candidate is granted a superior diploma without two years' attendance at the normal school. In exceptional cases, however, a candidate who can satisfy the principal that he has had academic training equivalent to that of the elementary diploma, may be admitted directly to the course for the superior diploma.

The course includes training in: practical pedagogy, each pupil being required to teach a certain number of lessons in the model school (*école d'application*) under the supervision of the teachers or principal of the normal school, theoretical pedagogy, psychology, methodology, history of education, school management. In addition there are academic courses in French, English, philosophy, history and geography, mathematics, drawing, singing, politeness, hygiene, Latin.

There is special training in domestic science, agriculture, commercial and industrial sections.

(*b*) Special training is given the pupils in the use of the direct method for teaching English and French, besides which, there is a review of the academic portion of the work.

Elementary Diploma.

(*a*) The length of this course is two years, and to be admitted the applicant must pass an examination on the following subjects of the last year of the primary elementary school:—catechism, French language, history of Canada, arithmetic. In the first year the course contains instruction in theoretical pedagogy and general pedagogical methods together with instruction and review of the academic part of the school course.

This work is continued in the second year, and practical pedagogy is added in the form of observation and practice-teaching in the model schools.

(b) During both years of the course for the elementary diploma, training is given in French and English, and also training in methods of teaching them both as first and second languages.

DIPLOMAS GRANTED WITHOUT ATTENDANCE AT A NORMAL SCHOOL.

The same diplomas may be granted by the Catholic Central Board of Examiners (*Bureau central des examinateurs catholiques*). At least thirty days before the time fixed for the examinations each candidate must notify the secretary of the Board of his intention to present himself for examination. He must also deposit with the secretary of the Board a certificate of good moral character signed by the parish priest, and a birth certificate showing that the candidate was at least seventeen years of age on his last birthday or will have attained that age on or before December 31st immediately following the date of the examination. The candidates for the two diplomas are subject to examination in accordance with the requirements of the programme of examination, issued from time to time by the catholic committee. This programme is approximately the same as that of the normal schools.

The examinations may be in French or English according to the desire expressed by the candidate in his application. This is indicated in the diploma.

The candidate who desires to teach in both languages must undergo an examination in French and English, on reading, grammar, dictation and composition. In order to obtain a diploma in a language which is not their

mother tongue, whether it be English or French, candidates must obtain sixty per cent. in grammar, dictation and composition, and be able to speak the language to the satisfaction of the examiners.

A candidate holding a degree of bachelor of arts from a university of the province of Quebec will be exempt from the examinations of the central board except in agriculture, pedagogy, school law and regulations, drawing, commercial law, book-keeping and technology. This candidate may also present himself for the superior diploma at the normal school in which case attendance is not required but he must pass an examination on theoretical pedagogy, school law, school hygiene, and on any of the subjects of the course not included in the course for the bachelor's degree. All candidates, however, who desire a diploma for a language which is not their mother tongue must satisfy the central board or normal school of their ability. Inasmuch as the direct or so-called natural method is used in Quebec in teaching French and English, great importance is attached to the oral use of the language.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

The Catholic Central Board of Examiners does not accept certificates or diplomas received from outside authorities, but such certificated persons may offer themselves for examination, by first addressing an application to the secretary of the Catholic Board of Examiners.

PROTESTANT SCHOOLS.

The Protestant schools of the province of Quebec are under the control of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction. The schools are classified as elementary, intermediate and high schools. The ele-

mentary school course includes grades I-VII, the intermediate, grades VIII and IX, (occasionally, but rarely) grade X, high school grades, VIII-XI.

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The modern languages taught in the Protestant schools of Quebec are French and English. The regulations require that the study of French be begun in grade IV and it may be begun in grade III.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The teachers' certificates granted by the Protestant Central Board of Examiners are of three grades, the elementary, the intermediate and the high school. The principal of an intermediate school must hold an intermediate certificate. The principal of a high school must hold a high school certificate.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

High School Certificate.

(a) This certificate is granted only to graduates in arts of a Canadian or British university. It must indicate the standing of the graduate in mathematics, Latin, Greek, French and all the subjects in which the graduate has obtained university honours.

However, teachers holding the intermediate certificate may obtain a second class high school certificate after satisfactorily passing six units of work in the faculty of arts of McGill University, provided that not more than three of the units be in courses of the first year in arts,—a unit being equivalent to four honour lectures per week during the university year.

(b) The amount of training in French received by these candidates may vary greatly. They may have had one to four years of university work in French after the matriculation examination. The work may have been of the general course type or the candidate may have specialized by taking an honour course. In any case candidates must have passed oral examinations which count for fifty per cent. of the total marks.

Intermediate Certificate.

(a) The requirement for this class of certificate is the school leaving or university matriculation examination. This is the examination of grade XI.

The holder of an elementary diploma who has taught at least three years after receiving the diploma may receive an intermediate certificate on taking successfully grade XI examination in the following subjects: English, algebra or geometry, French and any two other subjects.

(b) French is obligatory from grade IV on and may be begun in grade III. The candidate for the intermediate certificate will have had from seven to nine years of French. Pronunciation and oral work are stressed, as the direct method is used in all schools.

Elementary Certificate.

(a) The requirement for this class of certificate is the examination of grade X. However, students who have passed the grade IX examination may be admitted to the normal term after Christmas, provided they have taught until Christmas by permission of the department of public instruction, or have attended a superior school (intermediate or high school) taking the full work of grade X up to that date, as certified either by the secretary-

treasurer of the school board under which they have taught, or by the principal of the school which they have attended.

(b) These candidates will have had five to eight years of French taught by the principal of the school which they have attended.

(c) These candidates will have had five to eight years of French taught by the direct method.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

High School Certificate.

(a) The general professional training for this certificate implies the successful completion in the university of the following courses:

1. Principles of education, psychology of education, history of education.

A. Principles of general method.

B. Special methods in elementary subjects.

C. Special methods in high school subjects.

2. School and class management.

A. School administration and school law and regulations of the province of Quebec.

B. Class management and discipline.

With these courses the students must have fifty half days of practice-teaching, must make critical reports on lessons observed, and follow special courses in methods of teaching music and drawing.

The professional training for this certificate may be taken at McGill or at the University of Bishop's College.

(b) Besides the work described above candidates are given special courses in methods of teaching French. (See also below: school for specialists).

Intermediate Certificate.

(a) The course for this certificate is of one year's duration and is as follows: regular courses of lectures in the history of education and in the principles of education, school management and law throughout the year. Observation and practice-teaching receive particular attention. There are also courses of training in specific subjects, such as English, geography, history, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, French, etc.

(b) The course in French is planned with three aims in view: to increase the knowledge already acquired of the language; to promote the use of French in and out of the class-room; to prepare students for the teaching of French in the schools. To achieve these ends careful directions are given by theory and practice in the teaching of the language by the direct method. Special attention is given to the study of phonetics. (See also below: school for specialists).

Elementary Certificate.

(a) The course for this certificate is of four month's duration. There are two terms, before and after Christmas. Candidates who have passed the grade X examination have the option, so far as accommodation permits, of entering for the term before Christmas or the term after Christmas. Only those who have passed grade IX are admitted after Christmas.

The course for this diploma falls into the following divisions:

- (1) A general review of subjects taught in the rural schools.
- (2) Lectures on methods of teaching specific subjects.
- (3) Lectures on principles of education, school management and law.

(4) Observation and practice-teaching both in graded and ungraded schools.

(b) The course in French for this certificate is the same in aim and nature as that for the Intermediate certificate. It differs only in length. (See also below: school for specialists).

SUMMER SCHOOL FOR SPECIALISTS.

Besides the training for teachers of French already described, the teachers' training committee has provided a summer school for the training of specialists. The length of the course is three weeks, during which time teachers are given intensive training in the most modern methods of teaching French to English students. Special attention is given to pronunciation and the study of phonetics. This school is not for learners of the language. It is open only to teachers who have already had professional training and at least one year of successful experience in ordinary class-room work. Such teachers must have a good working knowledge of written and spoken French and must give satisfactory evidence of that fact before admission. Teachers who successfully complete their course and are recommended by the directors of the school receive from the central board of examiners either a first class specialist's certificate or a second class specialist's certificate. The first class certificate is permanent. The second class certificate is valid for two years and may be raised to a first class after further attendance satisfactory to the directors of the school.

The first class certificate may be awarded on a successful examination in methods without full attendance at the school in the case of a person whose mother tongue is French and who presents to the director of the

summer school satisfactory evidence of efficiency in teaching French and in class management.

Schools employing specialists receive a special grant from the Protestant committee on the following conditions:

(a) The specialist must be responsible for French in all the grades of the school and must give all his time to the teaching of the subject.

(b) Specialists must follow what is known as the direct method of teaching French in accordance with the prescribed course of study.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

The Protestant Central Board of Examiners recognizes the certificates of protestant teachers trained outside the province of Quebec, under the following conditions:—

“Art. 35. A person holding a diploma as teacher granted by extra-provincial authorities, who desires to obtain a diploma for this province, shall when possible submit to the Central Board of Examiners the following documents:

(a) A programme showing the subjects and the nature of the examination upon which he obtained his extra-provincial diploma.

(b) A certified statement of the marks obtained in each subject of examination.

(c) The diploma which he holds.

(d) A certificate of age, and a certificate of moral character according to the authorized Form No. I.

(e) Satisfactory evidence that he is a British subject, or has begun the necessary proceedings to become such.

37. If these documents are satisfactory, the superintendent of public instruction may, at his discretion, grant a permit to teach until the date of examination.

38. In view of these documents the Central Board shall determine what examinations, if any, the candidate is to undergo, and issue the diploma to which he may be entitled after all conditions are complied with.

39. The candidate shall remit to the Central Board of Examiners a fee of five dollars with his application and shall receive notification of the days of examination, which shall be held at the time and place appointed by the Board."

The foregoing articles, 36-39, are from the regulations of the Protestant committee of public instruction.

It may be added that only teaching certificates based on normal school training are recognized.

SASKATCHEWAN

I. PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The modern languages taught in the schools of Saskatchewan are French and German. They may be begun in grade IX and continued through grades X, XI, and XII.

II. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The classes of teachers' certificates granted in the province of Saskatchewan are collegiate, high school, first class and second class.

III. ACADEMIC TRAINING.

Collegiate Certificate.

(a) This is the highest certificate granted in the province of Saskatchewan. It is a permanent high school certificate, obtained after a year's successful teaching of work up to, and including, that prescribed for grade XII of the high school programme. It qualifies the holder for the position of principal of a collegiate institute.

(b) The training in modern languages for this certificate is the same as that required for the high school certificate.

High School Certificate.

(a) The candidate for this certificate must hold a first class certificate or be a candidate for it at the same time as for the high school certificate. In addition, the candidate must hold a degree in arts or science from a Canadian or other British university acceptable to the department.

This certificate qualifies the holder for the position of high school principal or high school assistant.

(b) These academic requirements do not necessarily imply any specialization in modern languages. If the candidate holds a degree from the University of Saskatchewan he may have taken French and German (or one of the two) for two years in the general course, for four years of the general course, or may have specialized in modern languages in the last two years. While the courses are open either to honour or pass students, honour students are required to do special work, and meet in separate groups for discussion. The courses as outlined cover the various literary periods.

First Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must hold first class diplomas (grade XII of the teacher's course) from the education department, or be graduates in arts or science of a Canadian or other British university whose degrees are acceptable to the department.

Students who pass the junior matriculation examination of the University of Saskatchewan and who in addition have successfully completed two years of the

course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts, bachelor of science, or bachelor of science in agriculture, may upon submitting an official statement from the university, that they have successfully completed courses in English, mathematics and history for such years, be admitted as candidates for the first class certificate.

(b) These candidates may have had four or five years of training in French and German (or in one of the two).

Second Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must hold second class diplomas (grade XI of the teachers' course) from the education department. Students who have entered the University of Saskatchewan with junior matriculation and have successfully completed one year of the course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts, bachelor of science or bachelor of agriculture may, upon submitting an official statement from the university that they have successfully completed courses in English, mathematics and history for that year, be admitted as candidates for this degree.

(b) Candidates may have had three or four years of training in French and German (or in one of the two).

The high school work is begun by the oral method, with training in pronunciation based on phonetics. Later grammar is introduced together with the reading of prescribed texts.

The candidates who have completed the first year of the university have covered a more extensive course of reading.

IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

The province of Saskatchewan has provided for the training of its teachers by establishing normal schools at Regina and Saskatoon.

Collegiate Certificate.

The professional training for this certificate is the same as for the high school certificate. It is a permanent certificate, however, granted to those candidates only who already hold the high school certificate and have completed a year's successful teaching of work up to and including that prescribed for grade XII of the high school programme.

High School Certificate.

(a) Graduates in arts or science of Canadian or British universities whose degrees are acceptable to the department may qualify for first class and high school certificates by attending a session of eighteen weeks at the normal school. Applicants for admission to this session must be at least eighteen years of age or attain that age before the close of the session.

The course includes general pedagogical training in such subjects as psychology, history and science of education, school management, together with observation and practice-teaching.

(b) There is no special training in methods of teaching modern languages.

First Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate who do not hold a university degree must take a course of training of thirty-three weeks at the normal school. The course is of the same general nature as for the high school certificate.

(b) There is no special training in methods of teaching modern languages.

Second Class Certificate.

(a) Candidates for this certificate must take a course

of training of thirty-three weeks at the normal school. The course is of the same general nature as for the high school certificate.

(b) There is no special training in methods of teaching modern languages.

V. RECOGNITION OF EXTRA-PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES.

Any teacher who submits to the department of education official evidence of holding academic standing and of having taken professional training at least equivalent to that prescribed for teachers in the province of Saskatchewan is granted recognition.

All such candidates are granted interim certificates which are made permanent after at least one year's, successful teaching in the province, provided that the inspectors' reports on their work be satisfactory. Such candidates must present to the department of education the following original documents:

(a) The professional certificate held, together with the highest non-professional certificate.

(b) An official statement from the department of education issuing such certificate certifying that it is valid and in force, and that the applicant has fulfilled all obligations to such department, and indicating the academic and professional standing granted.

(c) A certificate of moral character dated within three months of the time of presentation.

(d) A recent testimonial from the inspector of school under whom he last taught.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

An examination of the preceding survey reveals these significant facts:

1. In three provinces only are university graduates

required to take a full year's course of professional training in a normal school or college of education in order to obtain the highest class of teachers' certificates.

2. Three provinces require of university graduates a short course of professional training of approximately four months.

3. In two provinces it is possible for university graduates to obtain the highest class of teachers' certificate by passing a written and oral examination of professional type without attendance at any normal school or college of education.

4. One province requires of university graduates a year's professional training but allows this work to be taken concurrently with the course for the B.A. degree.

5. One province grants an interim professional certificate to any graduate of a standard university, without any professional training or professional examination whatsoever.

6. In two provinces university graduates are required to pass a preliminary academic examination for admission to the normal school.

7. In four provinces only do teachers of modern languages receive any *special* training in methods of language teaching. In all the provinces they may and do receive general instruction in methods, and in practice-teaching they undoubtedly teach language lessons which are criticized by the instructors, but there is no direct training in modern language method.

8. Two provinces only give professional specialists' certificates in modern languages. One province gives the specialist training during the year's course for teachers' certificates and allows those only to take this training who have obtained at least second class honours in modern languages in their academic course. The other

province provides an intensive course in modern language methods for teachers with professional certificates and at least one year professional experience. In order to be admitted to this course teachers must show that they have the academic requirements including the ability to converse fluently in the language. In neither of these provinces is it necessary to hold a specialist's certificate in order to teach the modern language in question, although one province makes increased grants to schools employing specialists.

9. In no province of Canada are there any specified modern language requirements either academic or professional for teachers of modern languages, with the exception of one province where candidates desiring a certificate to teach in any language which is not their mother tongue must satisfy the examiner of their ability to speak the language in question.

Opportunities for proper academic training in modern languages exist in practically every province in Canada, but as long as departments of education permit unqualified teachers to give instruction in modern languages just so long will school boards hire them, provided they can get them cheaply enough. It is true that in the larger centres school boards scrutinize closely enough the academic qualifications of teachers who are applicants for positions, and such matters as study and travel abroad, ability to understand and speak the language are given due consideration, with the result that as a whole the teaching of modern languages in collegiates and larger high schools is in the hands of competent teachers. Responsibility for the failure to obtain good results must be attributed to method or the curriculum rather than to the lack of academically qualified teachers.

If this is true of the larger schools the same observation cannot be made of the qualifications of teachers in the smaller high schools or in the numerous continuation schools. In one province 143 teachers out of 160 teaching French in continuation schools have had only high school French. In another province 74 teachers out of 145 who are teaching French in continuation schools have had only high school French. (For further information see chapter on statistics.) These figures are sufficient to show that one of the biggest problems is the unqualified teacher.

Specialists' professional certificates specify the subjects which the candidate is prepared to teach. Other certificates are, as a rule, blanket certificates covering all the subjects usually offered in secondary schools. It would seem that every type of certificate should indicate the subjects that the holder is qualified to teach and that, in the case of modern languages, the certificate should state the oral proficiency of the candidate.

The time has come too, when certain minimum academic requirements, over and above mere grammatical knowledge and reading ability, should be established for all modern language teachers. All probably would agree on the following:—

1. An intelligible and accurate (though not necessarily perfect) pronunciation.
2. The ability to carry on an ordinary conversation in the language without a sense of painful embarrassment.

Without these qualifications no teacher should be considered qualified to take charge of modern language classes. Without these no university graduate should be accepted by any college of education as a candidate for a specialist's certificate in modern languages.

MODERN LANGUAGES IN PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

The linguistic training of students in applied science, medicine and other branches of technical science generally ceases, or is relegated to a very subordinate position, from the moment they enter upon the definitely specialized studies of their respective courses. All such students are required to show evidence of language study and in most cases a modern language is offered in fulfilment of these conditions. In institutions where pre-medical or pre-scientific courses in arts are given, considerable weight is attached to modern languages and there is a growing tendency to insist on a working knowledge of German. Opinion among teachers in all branches of technical instruction tends strongly to the view that students should be equipped with at least a reading knowledge of one or two foreign languages, again with special stress on German. It is not found that the present training is sufficient to enable the average student to make technical use of his linguistic knowledge; and there is evidence that many individuals are forced to take time from their own work in order to make up for this deficiency.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN MODERN LANGUAGES

Entrance to the professional faculties or departments of the universities requires in general junior matriculation, with complete or partial senior matriculation or one year in arts. Options are usually so arranged that candidates have to take two foreign languages, which are likely to be Latin and French, but may be two ancient or

two modern languages. The situation is more clearly presented by the subjoined figures than by a summary of entrance requirements, but it may be noted that a modern language is obligatory in some cases; for example, one university prescribes French or German for entrance to agriculture, accounting, law and pharmacy; two make the same condition for medicine, three for applied science and one requires both these languages for admission to its course in music. One school of architecture sets down French as an entrance subject, while German is recommended for certain courses in applied science and Spanish for others. Medical students are usually advised to study German before or immediately after matriculation and a modern language is required in one instance for household science and commerce.

Figures were received from ten universities giving the number of students entering their various professional schools with matriculation credits in languages. Tabulation of these figures gives the following results:

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS, MATRICULATION CREDITS IN LANGUAGES FOR CLASSES ENTERING OCTOBER, 1926.

Faculty	No. reporting	Total No. students	Numbers of students with credit in							
			Latin		French		German		Spanish	
			Jr.	Sr.	Jr.	Sr.	Jr.	Sr.	Jr.	Sr.
Applied										
Science . . .	8	547	313	86	530	285	24	11	3	2
Agriculture . . .	3	83	21	2	49	4	2	1		
Medicine . . .	6	386	359	96	311	202	20	15	5	5
Dentistry . . .	3	90	87	8	85	21	2	2		
Forestry . . .	1	25	23	5	23	17	3		1	
Music . . .	3	27	27	3	25	3	5			
Household										
Science . . .	3	132	66	19	108	32	8	1	4	2
Commerce . . .	5	248	160	51	198	95	7	4	5	4
Pharmacy . . .	5	86	39	9	33	17	1	1		

Greek is offered in 15 cases, 9 of which are in medicine and 4 in commerce. One student in the faculty of music has junior matriculation in Italian.

MODERN LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS IN PROFESSIONAL COURSES

In the general prescription of studies in faculties of applied science or engineering we find, *e.g.* "students are recommended to acquire a reading knowledge of French and German", "one course in French or German required", "two classes in French or German or one in each" or more usually there is no mention of language after senior matriculation. There are specific language requirements in certain branches of applied science: French is prescribed in two or three years of most university courses in architecture, French or German in forestry. Departments of chemical engineering require from two to four years of German, while Spanish appears in the curriculum of one course in metallurgy, and in another case is offered as a voluntary study.

In the faculties of medicine there is a strong tendency to encourage the study of German, but courses in that language are not prescribed in the regular curriculum; two pre-medical courses make French or German obligatory for two years. One institution gives opportunity for language study by offering courses as "cultural options" in the early years of the course, but in the choice of these options French is elected by 142 students and German by only 14.

Courses for the degree of Bachelor of Commerce include from two to four years of one modern language, usually beginning with literary studies and developing the more technical aspect in the later years of the course.

In the Royal Military College, French is taught

throughout the four-year course, with strong emphasis on the oral side of the work.

OPINION OF INSTRUCTORS IN TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

A brief questionnaire was sent to 223 professors and other teaching officers in technical faculties and departments. Returns were received from 122, or nearly 55 per cent, a very satisfactory result considering that the matter is a secondary issue for the persons addressed.

The questions were as follows:

1. What professional use would your graduates find for (i) a reading knowledge, (ii) a speaking knowledge, of French, German, Spanish, Italian, or other modern language?
2. To what extent do you require or recommend (i) undergraduates, (ii) graduate students to make use of technical books or periodicals written in French, German, Spanish, etc.? Would you make more use of such material if students were better trained in foreign languages?
3. Do you find that students entering with matriculation in French, German, etc. can use these languages for the purposes of scientific study?
4. In how many cases do you know of students or professional men making voluntary efforts to improve their knowledge of French, German, etc.?

The replies are summarized by questions.

I. PROFESSIONAL UTILITY OF A KNOWLEDGE OF MODERN LANGUAGES.

In response to question 1, 26 instructors in faculties of applied science consider that a reading knowledge of one or two modern languages would be "valuable, essential, necessary, absolutely necessary, important, profitable, of immense value, etc." for their graduates; 12 believe there

would be little use for this ability and 3 find no need for it at all.

Answers under this heading usually bracket French and German, but it is highly significant that 9 of them stress emphatically the professional value of German. One instructor goes so far as to say "without German one remains in ignorance of three-quarters of the work done in physics". Another reports that much of the technical and trade literature on ceramics is in German, while Italian is also important for this branch. A mining man emphasizes the value of Spanish, and a geologist would like his students to have a working knowledge of Greek and Latin as well as French and German.

Fifteen teachers of chemistry stress the value of a reading knowledge, and express themselves strongly on the need for proficiency in German. One professor, the head of a large department, would have German substituted for high school chemistry. Several deplore the fact that German is studied by so few students. In one case there is a recommendation that the cultural side of language study be not neglected by science students.

Instructors in medicine agree with their colleagues in applied science as to the value of modern language study, though 5 out of 35 replies state that there would be little or no professional use for a reading knowledge. Many add illuminating remarks on general aspects of the problem. A few refer to the poor work of the professional translator or abstractor; others consider that the medical curriculum is already so full that nothing in the way of language work can be added. Many medical men believe that French and especially German are necessary implements for the man engaged in research work, but they find that even students possessing the necessary knowledge are loth to read articles in foreign languages. Reports to

the same effect are received from 8 instructors in agriculture, 1 in forestry, 2 in dentistry and 2 in music. In the last case the phonetic aspect of language is emphasized.

Under the heading of speaking knowledge there is less unanimity of opinion and fewer replies were received. Eight instructors in science believe it to be professionally valuable but 12 attach little or no importance to it. For certain purposes a practical knowledge of languages is recommended; miners, for example, are advised to study Spanish; doctors may find use for a colloquial knowledge of many tongues in their clinical work and especially of German for their studies in Europe. One professor of medicine argues that efforts spent in gaining more than the foundation of a language may be waste of time because there is never any certainty of needing it.

2. STUDY OF TECHNICAL MATTER PUBLISHED IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

The practice of requiring students to read articles in foreign languages is fairly common in graduate schools of applied science and in departments of chemistry. Twenty-nine instructors say that they frequently do so for graduate students and 15 for undergraduates; on the other hand 12 report that they make no such requirement for graduates and 23 never do so for undergraduates. In medicine the reading of foreign texts or periodicals is even less common. Nineteen instructors make such assignments occasionally to graduate students and 27 never do so. That this state of things is due in part to the students' inability to use their knowledge of a foreign language for scientific reading is shown by the fact that 56 professors say they would make greater use of foreign material in their reading assignments if students were better equipped linguistically; 21 would not do so.

3. In response to the inquiry whether matriculation standards in French and German were high enough for their purposes, 64 persons answered 'No' and 15 said 'Yes', but 6 of these excluded German from their statements.

4. VOLUNTARY STUDY OF MODERN LANGUAGES.

Replies to this question are naturally vague but it is clear that there is a general desire on the part of the more serious-minded students to acquire a reading knowledge of French and more especially German. About 30 cases are recorded of voluntary study in languages, generally German, and in 2 or 3 cases there is record of study classes being formed among the staff and graduate students of a department. In one instance a medical professor gives regular instruction to his own students and one professor of botany conducts a class in German and contemplates prescribing a text book or reader in that language. Voluntary classes in German are mentioned also by 2 professors of agriculture. In one faculty of arts the department of physics is making a special requirement of German for its students and has arranged classes for them.

The relatively small number of specialists in theology has sometimes allowed educationalists to overlook the value of German in the pursuit of theological studies. Particularly in matters of Biblical criticism, both Old and New Testament, the German contribution has been immense and a working knowledge of that language is indispensable to the advanced student. So also in the field of Semitics generally. Institutions of standing are increasingly demanding German as a prerequisite for the D.D. degree.

THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS¹

A questionnaire, addressed to 112 private schools was returned by 52; of these 30 are girls' Schools 14 are boys' and 8 are mixed.

In half the schools making returns, pupils enter at eight or ten years of age and follow a more or less continuous course leading up to, and in one or two cases beyond, the matriculation examination. There is thus room for at least eight years of instruction in modern languages, with the further advantage that freedom from official control allows these schools to plan their own courses and make such experiments as they desire. It will appear that these opportunities have in certain instances been seized and utilized; but that the majority are content to follow the schedule prescribed for the public high schools of the provinces in which they are located.

The term "preparatory school" is used to designate the primary department of a private school. It does not quite correspond to a public elementary school, because pupils enter later and frequently reach a standing equivalent to second year high school in some subjects, including Latin and French. Twenty-six preparatory schools teach French, offering on the average 4 years of instruction, and 20 teach Latin, for an average of 2 years: but a quarter of the schools reporting have 5 or 6 years of French in their preparatory course and a small group of 6 schools offer as many as seven years of pre-high school

¹For statistical summary on private schools, see chapter on statistics.

French beginning almost in the kindergarten. German is found occasionally below the high school age, in schools serving German communities. In the upper, or high school division of the institutions reporting, 43 mention from 2 to 5 years of French, and the rest do not specify the length of their course. Four years is the regular course, but 15 schools give five. The same is approximately true for Latin, while German is taught in as many as 29 schools, usually for 4 years. Seven schools offer Spanish, as a rule for 2 or 3 years, though in one case 5 years are undertaken. Italian, Norse, Swedish and Icelandic occur once each, their presence being due to local conditions.

ENROLMENT

No figures for total enrolment were asked for because it may be assumed that practically all pupils in private schools take French.

Summarized, the enrolment figures are as follows: preparatory schools have about 1500 pupils in French, of whom three-fifths are in their first 2 years of the language, and about 600 in Latin, with more than five-sixths in their first 2 years. The high school forms of private schools have 3500 pupils in French, 25% in each of the first 3 years, and roughly 19 and 6 per cent. respectively in the fourth and fifth. This would indicate that private schools are less subject to the wastage that reduces enrolment in the public high school at the end of the second year. In Latin there are over 2700 pupils similarly distributed, and in German a total of 366, or more than 10% of the number taking French, *i.e.*, probably 10% of the total enrolment. Two-fifths of the German pupils are in their first year, and rather more in the second and third. Eleven per cent. are taking a fourth, or senior matriculation year of German. Enrolment in Spanish

reaches 60, Icelandic 15, Italian 2; Norse and Swedish do not seem to have found any students at all.

CLASSIFICATION

A problem that is perhaps more difficult of solution in language work than in other branches of instruction lies in the difficulty of classifying pupils. This difficulty is accentuated in the case of schools where some pupils reach the high school stage with two or more years of French or Latin, while others arrive in complete ignorance of these studies. Information was therefore requested on the placement of pupils passing from the preparatory to the high school forms in private schools. Of the 24 institutions that offered data on the subject, 18 say they place such pupils in the first year of high school, 2 in second, and 4 in a special class; which means that in many cases the first year high school work is confused by the presence in the same class of pupils at widely different stages of linguistic growth. To offset this it must be kept in mind that some of these schools have a relatively small number of recruits entering at high school age, and for these they provide special instruction. Where the school is big enough to allow of special classification, the best of the entrants from the preparatory forms are sometimes kept together throughout their school career, and thus have a better chance of making even progress in their study of languages.

ORGANIZATION

(i) *Time-table.*

In the preparatory forms, the most usual practice gives 3 or 4 periods a week of 30 or 40 minutes. This holds for French and Latin, but the average, both in number and length of periods is slightly higher for the classical

language. In the high school forms, the time-table conforms fairly closely to that of the corresponding provincial systems; with perhaps a slight advantage in time to the private schools. The norm for all schools reporting stands at 4 periods of 35 or 40 minutes for the first 3 years and 5 in the last two. There is no marked difference in the time given to German. On the margins of the tabulation, there are a few schools giving 2 and 6 periods in French and German, and 5 that go over 45 minutes in the length of the period. A small number give ten and twenty-minute periods to elementary French.

(ii) *Equipment.*

Private school libraries rarely make special provision for the study and enjoyment of the modern humanities. About one-third have a few French dictionaries; a small number of works of reference, books of travel and description, volumes of general literature, are owned by half a dozen schools, and 4 others have more than 20 titles in the category of literature. Three institutions have a small collection, 20 volumes or more, of German literature, and one reports an extensive library in Icelandic. One institution secures a maximum of use for its modern language volumes by dispersing them among different class-rooms and clubs, while others maintain a *salle française* in which books and periodicals are available. Eight schools subscribe to the little French newspapers especially published for language students, and so extensively used, sometimes to the exclusion of more solid material, in English schools. There is also mention of *Le Petit Journal*, and the weekly edition of the *Journal des Débats*. It is not surprising to find that only 3 schools report their pupils as making much use of the modern language works in their libraries. Five others make it obligatory by assigning lessons requiring

reference books, and to encourage the use of Larousse and similar one-language dictionaries.

PHONOGRAPHS are used to supplement the class-room work in eight schools. Three of these have an effective collection—two dozen or more—of spoken records in French and others own French or Canadian song-discs. One has a phonographic course in Spanish. An expert teacher, who attaches a high degree of importance to the cultivation of the auditory powers, employs the instrument extensively, prescribing text-books that have an accompanying series of discs, and making phonetic transcripts for pupils to use while listening.

Still less common than the use of the phonograph is the organization of modern language clubs, which exist in only three of the reporting schools. The usual programme of such groups is followed—debates, reports on reading, games, the production of plays. Twenty schools produce plays in French and German. One school, where the French club has proved a most valuable auxiliary to the class-room, specializes in the dramatic side of language teaching, and has even had a French play written and produced in public by its own pupils. This, however, is not a normal state of affairs, though the practice of dramatizing short scenes appears to be fairly common in preparatory forms where conversational methods are employed. Pictorial aids to teaching, charts, maps, advertisements, the pupils' own drawings, etc. are frequently reported.

STAFF

Available information on the training and qualification of modern language teachers in private schools indicates that the majority of them are linguistically well equipped for their task. There is less evidence of their technical

qualifications. Summarizing the data derived from a brief questionnaire reporting on 71 teachers in the 52 schools, there are found to be 49 women and 22 men giving half or more of their time to language work. Of these 36 hold the Bachelor's degree, 4 the Master's and 4 report other degrees; 16 of these have graduated with honours in modern languages in Canadian or British universities. As may be expected in private schools, these teachers are, by birth, of varied origin: Canadian, 21; British, 14; French, 9; United States, 5; German, 3; Russian, Swiss, Bulgarian, 1 each. For the most part they were educated in their native land. This group of language teachers contains many who have passed long or short periods of study abroad. Twenty have attended courses in France, nearly all for 6 months or more; 8 of them for 2 or 3 years. Twelve have studied in Germany, the majority for a year or longer; and 10 individuals have taken the opportunities offered by the province of Quebec.

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATES are held by 13 teachers, 9 of whom have provincial qualifications, ranging from a normal school diploma to an Ontario specialist's certificate. Three have attended teacher training schools in Great Britain and 1 holds the French *Certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire*. Other qualifications are mentioned which are not directly connected with teaching—*Diplôme de fin d'études secondaires*, *Brevet supérieur*, *Diplôme de l'école de Science politique*, etc., and a number of teachers say they are interested in various languages outside their curriculum; Italian, Spanish, Russian, Hindustani, etc.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

Sixty teachers make a return under this heading; 11 have 24 years or more of experience; 25 have taught from

3 to 12 years, and the rest are fairly evenly distributed. The average length of service is slightly higher than in the public high schools.

SYLLABUS

(i) *Preparatory Forms.*

The scope of the elementary work, as evidenced by the texts named, varies considerably. Much use is made of the usual *Premiers Pas*, *Oral Lessons*, *French Without Tears*, *Conversational Readers*, etc.; a few schools report "Gouin Method" with or without texts. In the last two years of the preparatory work, the trend is in the direction of grammatical and reading methods; in four or five schools pupils have covered about 20, and in one instance 40 lessons of the *High School French Grammar*. This work is often supplemented by the reading of 40 or 50 pages of graded material; or occasionally of a short novel such as *Sans Famille* and *La Tulipe Noire*.

In schools where the junior French is in charge of a special teacher the programme is likely to follow recognized direct method lines. One principal sketches a plan of work based on the Quebec system—phonetics, songs, and conversation for two years, then grammar and some reading. She reports a high standard of success in provincial examinations. Another is working out an experiment in text books; pupils are given the readers used in the schools of France at the corresponding ages. Stories are translated to the children, whose interest is thus aroused, and their linguistic effort stirred by literary appreciation. "They are most interested and are as a result learning to read and understand very early without the difficult long process involved in French grammar." This reading is accompanied by training in aural comprehension, "from which it is a short step to learn how to speak."

That is the state of affairs in one girls' school. In three or four others where the investigators were invited to attend classes, a lively interest was noted, and the children seemed to be using their small vocabularies easily and naturally.

(ii) *High School Forms.*

In the work of the high school forms a dominant influence is bound to be exercised by the provincial examination impending at the end of two, three or four years. In the case of a school drawing none, or a small minority, of its recruits from a preparatory department where languages are taught, the schedule is apt to run parallel with that of the public schools; and 32 private schools report this to be the case. Of the schools having their own preparatory department, about half are content to follow the matriculation programme, and the rest add from one to four texts to the regular course. In provinces where "set books" are prescribed, these additional texts are generally read in the first or second year; often there is a collection of stories, sometimes a play or novel: for example, one school reads *Perrichon* in the first year, another studies *Colomba* in the second.

It appears, then, that the practice of beginning languages, and particularly French, in the junior forms does not materially affect the content of most school programmes. Matriculation is the common goal, and it is usually approached by the same road. A few schools, however, make a determined effort to resist the levelling influence of public examinations. Three cases are cited, not as being typical of particular groups, but as showing that the pressure of examinations does not necessarily deprive the teacher of all freedom and initiative.

School *A*, a girls' school, has a senior course of five

years; classes are small, all instruction is given in French, the mother tongue of the two teachers: there are no prescribed texts for examination, and pupils have ample opportunity for hearing and speaking the language. The girls are probably of a high average intelligence, though no tests have been made, and are known to work hard. An essential feature of school *A* is its practice of re-grouping pupils in each subject according to achievement. In these conditions after the preparatory training, the following scheme is followed in the senior forms: Years I, II, a novel, a modern play, a comedy of Molière; III, a collection of lyrics, one play from each of Corneille, Racine, Molière, extracts from Bossuet, Sévigné; IV, V, similar treatment of the XVIIIth and XIXth centuries.

The reading is accompanied by study and discussion of Doumic's *Littérature* and Super's *Histoire*, and a prose book is used throughout the course.

In School *A* the objective was mainly literary, matriculation being a secondary consideration offering little difficulty. School *B* is of more general interest in that it has to deal with the problem of matriculating its pupils—it is a boys' school—but uses as little as possible the translation-composition methods that are apt to be induced by the form of examination in the province concerned. Its pupils come from its own preparatory school, being graded as of second year high school, or from the public elementary schools, when they rank as first year high school. Matriculation is taken in the fourth year.

The direct method is used throughout, with necessary modifications in the higher forms, where texts must be prepared for translation, and the process of rendering sentences into French has to be learned. The material used for the first two years includes easy graded texts, dealing with French life, history, geography, etc. or con-

taining dramatic scenes, for acting or rapid reading. There is phonetic drill, with or without an accompanying phonograph, oral reproduction, and direct method grammar. Texts are not carried over from one year to the next. "In each year", says the syllabus, "the pupils will open a new book, going further and deeper than the preceding one, and providing a thorough review of the elements in a new setting, without the distressing sight of familiar pages."

In the third year matriculation requirements begin to affect procedure. Grammatical method is varied by occasional exercises in English-French translation. One of the prescribed texts is studied, with translation, and a considerable amount of dramatic material is read. Memorization is practised at this stage.

The fourth and fifth years are devoted to the regular process of preparing "set books", and composition, with continued attention to the oral side of the work. It is to be noted that this school does not claim that pupils can be fitted with a Parisian accent under existing teaching conditions, but it does believe and has shown that the majority can be trained to a fair degree of aural comprehension on which the individual can build, when urged by the need or desire to acquire the spoken language.

School *C* is a co-educational academy attached to a university, which examines its pupils for admission and advises as to the organization and teaching. There are three-year courses in French and German arranged along lines somewhat similar to those of the junior college work in the University of Chicago: that is to say, each year has its own special objective, comprehension in the first, reproduction in the second, and in the third accuracy and facility in the practice of the foregoing abilities. In more detail, the yearly outlines are as follows:—

1. ELEMENTARY FRENCH. Primary object: to enable the student to understand easy French, written and spoken. Composition work is deferred. Reading, with grammatical analysis, forms the groundwork of this year's study, and covers about 200 pages of easy material.

2. ELEMENTARY FRENCH. Primary object: to enable the student to reproduce easy French, written and spoken. Phonetic texts, instruction partly in French. Reading of about 250-300 pages of more difficult French, collateral reading of 250 pages. The texts are those of the usual junior matriculation standard. Free composition and grammar.

3. INTERMEDIATE FRENCH. Emphasis on linguistic fluency and accuracy both in comprehension and reproduction. Stress on spoken French. Rapid reading of 250-400 pages of more difficult French, collateral reading of 350-500 pages.

As this programme was in course of organization it was not found advisable to visit classes or apply tests, but one small group was seen at work in a purely oral class. The lesson, vigorous and closely controlled, dealt with the demonstrative pronouns by means of selected objects. A short dramatic scene was also presented with a satisfactory degree of phonetic accuracy.

OPINIONS ON CERTAIN PROBLEMS.

The questionnaire included questions designed to elicit opinions on problems connected with examinations. A summary of replies shows a majority, 22 to 14, in favour of basing examinations on prescribed texts; 20 schools believe that departmental examinations should test oral ability, 3 do not, and 8 regard such a test as impracticable. On the other hand there is almost complete unanimity, 26-1, in favour of an audition test. Nine would like to see

translation wholly, and 10 partly, replaced by comprehension questions, while 7 do not approve of this form of test.

Suggestions for changes in examination procedure did not add anything to those offered in the Selected Teacher Questionnaire except that one school alleged general disapproval of the rubric that allots half the marks, in one provincial examination, to sight translation. Another note observes that the school finds little difference in results from direct or indirect method examinations if the pupils have been prepared chiefly by the direct method.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

The four tests were applied to a large number of pupils in private schools. Full details will be found in the chapter on achievement, but the results may be briefly summarized here. The figures cover the senior forms of 4 preparatory schools, and all forms of the high school section of 13 schools. The total number of cases examined is about 1200, but some of these did not do all the tests. The schools were located for the most part in Ontario and Quebec, and a large percentage of the pupils have begun French in the elementary years. The following table shows the mid-year norms for the private schools (P.S.) and those for the Canadian high schools (C.) exclusive of Quebec. Figures under Prep. refer to the last year of preparatory school, irrespective of number of years of instruction.

	Prep.	I		II		III		IV		V	
	P.S.	P.S.	C.	P.S.	C.	P.S.	C.	P.S.	C.	P.S.	C.
Vocabulary,	21	22	14	25	21	32	27	39	36	48	47
Grammar,	5	9	5	12	8	17	14	23	23	34	30
Comprehension, .	2	4	2	9	5	11	10	14	14	19	18
Free Composi- tion	6	7	6	8	6	9	7	9	9	10	10

The significant fact shown by this table is that the early advantage arising from the early start made by many of the pupils is almost entirely wiped out in the four years of secondary teaching. In the last column, 5th year, the number of cases under P.S. is too small to be reliable.

While the percentage of early beginners is not known for the whole range of cases, it was ascertained from a number of schools, totalling nearly 700 cases, and found to be about 45%. Test results were compared for the two groups, (*A.* early beginners, and *B.* late beginners), and while, in the absence of intelligence tests or other controlling data, their scientific value is small, they do indicate that *as things are*, late beginners rapidly reduce their handicap. In the middle of the 4th year the early beginners are 4 points ahead in vocabulary, 4.5 in grammar and 1 in comprehension. No figures for free composition were tabulated on this basis, and it must, of course, be remembered that oral ability is not measured.

A few private schools have given us, at the cost of some research in their own records, figures showing the comparative achievement of groups *A* and *B* in matriculation examinations.

The figures go back a number of years and cover about 600 cases in group *A* and 500 in group *B*. Analysis of results gives (See table 10, chapter on statistics):—

JUNIOR MATRICULATION

3rd Year. 36 per cent of group *A* wrote matriculation in their 3rd high school year, with about 12 per cent. of failures. 13 per cent. of group *B* wrote in their 3rd year, with about 20 per cent. of failures.

4th Year. 55 per cent. of group *A* wrote in their 4th

year with 20 per cent. of failures. 83 per cent. of group *B* wrote in their 4th year with 14 per cent. of failures.

SENIOR MATRICULATION

4th Year. 50 per cent. of group *A* wrote in their 4th high school year, with 16 per cent. of failures. 19 per cent. of group *B* wrote in the 4th year with 37 per cent. of failures.

5th Year. 50 per cent. of group *A* wrote in their 5th year, with 30 per cent. of failures. 81 per cent. of group *B* wrote in their 5th year, with 23 per cent. of failures.

A few cases write the examination in their second year, but in general it appears that early beginners have an opportunity, taken by about 25 per cent. of them, to matriculate a year sooner in French. Per contra, when group *A* delays matriculation to the regular high school age, it does not do as well as Group *B*. A remarkable feature of the tabulations is found in the fact that the percentage of failures for all pupils of *A* group is nearly equal to that for all pupils in *B* group.

CLASS-ROOM OBSERVATION

About a dozen private schools were visited, and classes observed in some of them; in others teachers and principals were interviewed and found to be greatly interested in the work of the committee and the new examination practice embodied in the tests. Class-room visitation is undoubtedly an ordeal to the teacher who has not been inured by custom to the terrors of inspection, and such visits were made only to the rooms of the most capable and experienced instructors. From the impressions gained in the process the following notes are selected.

A. The junior and kindergarten department of a

girls' school in a provincial capital. A young teacher, with some training in method, a year's residence in France, fluent and accurate speech and a capacity for interesting her pupils, puts them through the regular children's direct method exercises. Little snatches of dialogue, action songs and drills, reading in chorus, are satisfactorily performed; much use is made of a phonograph with a "course" of some two dozen records, which by much repetition appear to have greatly influenced the pronunciation of the senior pupils. French in this school seems to be a lively subject and efficiently taught.

B. An *explication de texte* in a senior class. Pupils are aurally at home in the language and able to express themselves with some facility but varying degrees of phonetic accuracy; it seems to be an old lesson and the interest of the story staled by long familiarity. The observer's impression was that the class was ready for much reading of stimulating texts.

C. A literature lesson in one of the higher forms of a certain school. The pupils have read a chapter on Bossuet and are quick to answer and ask questions on the great preacher and his times. The work is all in French, which is sufficiently familiar to allow eager, if at times disjointed, expression of opinion; once or twice the discussion became a general conversation. Another group in this school was heard at their grammar lesson, which had it been in English might have been characterized as gerund-grinding, so exacting was the teacher in matters of detail.

D. A class preparing for one of the less intelligent forms of matriculation examination. The pupils more interested in the scoring value of their efforts than in the subject itself; teacher evidently capable of higher things, but quite efficient in securing accurate French rendering of grammatical riddles; accent and fluency of pupils none

too good. Some translation done without reading because the text must be covered and time presses.

E. The French club of another anonymous school. The president, a fifth-form boy, puts his head through the curtains of the portable stage and announces the proceedings in excellent French. The scene is revealed and three juniors perform a playlet with which they are not too familiar; this, however, does not prevent them from carrying on in a curious jargon with the sounds of French recurring from time to time, but the point is that they are doing their best to make full use of what little they do know, without any hesitation or self-consciousness whatever. This is succeeded by two or three skits of the revue type, followed fairly closely by the audience of twenty-five or so, present entirely of their own volition; one of these playlets showed an interview between a doctor and his client who had "avalé le dictionnaire". After auscultation with a pair of ear-phones, a powerful potion restored (noises off) the volume to circulation. Lastly a potted edition of a famous play, arranged by a member of the club, and partly versified: and the proceedings close with a brief address from the president. An evening of varied linguistic attainment but sustained effort and interest; the club is run entirely by its own members, the French master acting in an advisory capacity, and not always being present at meetings. The room is provided with periodicals and a small reference library, and a phonograph is available for those who wish to practise with it.

In considering the not very complete information available on the status of modern languages in private schools, it must be remembered that, in the nature of the case, the missing data are probably those from schools which are conscious of weakness or lack of interest in

language work. From many institutions the response has been prompt and full: a number of private school principals and instructors have given valuable counsel and suggestions, and a few have undertaken investigations in aid of the committee's general plan. On the other hand, there are schools that have made no response of any kind, so that no general conclusions can be drawn.

MATRICULATION AND LEAVING EXAMINATIONS

Matriculation and high school leaving examinations in Canada are centralized under provincial* boards acting in collaboration with the universities. In six provinces a second, or senior matriculation examination is offered a year later to candidates seeking admission to the second year of an arts course. In one province matriculation is taken a year earlier than the usual 11th grade, and admits to a junior college and normal school. In the following pages an attempt is made to give an outline of the form and scope of the papers set in modern languages, with special reference to French, which concerns by far the largest number of candidates.

Canadian modern language examinations fall easily into three groups, and this grouping may be regarded as indicating also the general character of teaching methods in the corresponding areas. In the maritime provinces the type of examination can be labelled *grammar*, in Ontario and the prairie provinces *translation*, in Quebec and British Columbia, for want of a more definite title, we may call it *direct method*. Alberta, with its interesting experiment in intensive language study, and New Brunswick, where a new form of examination has recently been adopted, do not quite fit into the cadre suggested. This grouping lends itself to interesting speculations on the intellectual affiliations that lie behind it. It may be, for instance, that the tradition of British classical education in the past century has survived longest in the East,

*Saskatchewan is an exception.

leaving its mark on the teaching of French: perhaps the Middle West drew most of its earlier teachers and administrators from Ontario; the Alberta experiment hints at the influence of American practice in the treatment of short-course students, and the form of examination used in British Columbia may be partly due to the fact that the provincial university was in its beginnings a protégé of McGill.

For the purposes of the present discussion provinces are classified according to the nature of the papers they set, and for the sake of brevity, referred to by letter as follows: *A*, Prince Edward Island: *B*, Nova Scotia: *C*, New Brunswick: *D*, Ontario: *E*, Saskatchewan: *F*, Manitoba: *G*, Alberta: *H*, British Columbia: *J*, Quebec.

These nine examinations vary greatly in scope and method of administration. Five of them are completed in one paper, lasting from 1½ to 3 hours, and the remaining four require two papers of 2, 2½, or 3 hours. Arranged according to content, *A*, *B*, *C* give the place of honour to grammar; *D*, *E*, *F*, *G* employ translation in varying quantities, while *H* and *J* apply what is known as a direct method examination. It is impossible to make exact estimates of the weight attached to the different linguistic abilities, because only four provinces state the values of their questions, but the dominant element can be distinguished in the majority of cases.

A, *B*, and *C* represent stages of development from an old type of examination that keeps closely to the text book and probably derives from the technique of a test in Latin accidence. *A* deals exclusively with Fraser and Squair; *B* is seeking for new forms, but handicapped by having to test a full assignment of "set books" in the same paper as grammar and composition, while *C* has recently

applied a more modern technique to a content that is essentially grammatical.

The group *D, E, F, G* forms a fairly homogeneous unit employing the translation method whether from or into the language under examination, but there is variation in the relative values of "from" and "into". *D* makes the two about equal, taking a fraction of its authors paper for grammar. *E* gives more space to translation from French, and has eliminated the grammar questions. *F* attaches importance to a content knowledge of the assigned texts. *G*, in its second unit, lays special stress on prose and sentences.

H and *J* stand for the direct method examination. While *H* allows prose and sight translation, *J* relies almost entirely on free composition and applied grammar, and is unique in requiring an audition test. *H* prescribes no texts, but issues a recommended list; *J* prescribes a text but sets no translation.

The foregoing statements suffice to show the wide range of type found in Canadian examinations. There is no less variety in the matter of technique.

GRAMMAR. Traces still exist, and were commoner five years ago, of the formal grammar question, calling for a statement of rules, with or without examples, probably a heritage of the examination in Latin syntax. While detached grammatical details—"write out tenses, give the feminine," etc.—form the staple fare, there is discernible a strong movement toward the type of question that may be designated as applied grammar—substitution, completion, combining sentences by means of conjunctions, etc. Some examiners make this their regular implement, others employ it to a greater or less degree.

TRANSLATION. In the absence of evidence as to the process applied to the evaluation of such questions, little can be said about translation as a testing process, but it is possible to compare papers in the light of values attached to sight and prepared passages. In four cases there is no sight translation, in two there are no questions on prepared, in one paper the marks assigned to each are about equal, and in two other examinations the sight is one quarter and one half as long as the prepared translation.

COMPOSITION or translation into French appears partly as sentences and partly as continuous prose. The proportion of these items in Canadian examination papers is interesting in view of the fact that a recent report* makes it clear that a body of English professional opinion is in favour of abolishing the so-called sentences, alleging that they discover nothing that cannot be detected by means of a continuous passage and therefore tend to the setting of tricky grammatical phrases that are rarely used in either language.

In the papers under consideration the ratio of sentences to prose varies greatly: thus, paper *G* gives 50 points to the first and only 12 to the second. In *D* the proportion is 300 words of one to 130 words of the other. In *E* the sentences contain 160 words and there is no continuous prose.

FREE COMPOSITION occurs in all papers of *C*, *H*, *J*,—and in the senior papers only of *B*, *E*, *F*, *G*. It may be an essay on one of a number of subjects, which usually

**The Position of French in Grant-aided Secondary Schools in England*, p. 17, Educational Pamphlets No. 47, H. M. Stationery Office, London, 1926.

appear to have been selected from material studied in class; or may be controlled by an outline of the matter to be treated. In the case of *H* this outline is given in considerable detail and runs well over 100 words. Questions on prepared texts are often set, to be answered in French.

VOCABULARY. One or two papers have a question dealing specifically with vocabulary. In its simplest form this is a list of words to be put into French as in paper *A*; at the other extreme it appears as *explication de mots*, or the writing of homonyms and antonyms (paper *J*).

Tests of **PRONUNCIATION** are rare, though the oral side of the work is stressed in the general syllabus of several provincial systems. A consistent attempt to influence teaching by the inclusion of such questions, occurs in *D*, while *A* has two questions on pronunciation directing candidates to explain sounds by means of English equivalents. Attention must be drawn to the audition test illustrated in *J*. This is an integral part of the system and has been found to work satisfactorily; for a limited number of schools it is accompanied by individual oral tests. In province *G* a practical examination was in use for one or two years but had to be abandoned owing to difficulties of teaching and administration. *F* still specifies a dictation test.

Six provinces offer examination for senior matriculation. With the exception of *H* the papers have the same general form as the corresponding junior papers. *B*, *E*, *F*, and *G* add questions in free composition. *F* states its questions mainly in French. *E* has a continuous prose, which is not a feature of the corresponding junior matriculation paper. In the case of *H* the two papers are entitled language and literature. The first is a more

advanced form of the junior examination in the same province, but the literature paper marks an important attempt to set a new standard for the final school year.

VALUES. A rough comparison of the relative importance attached by different examining bodies to reading, writing and grammar may be made by tabulating (*a*) the values, or (*b*) the number of words, assigned to the testing of these abilities. In the second case no account can be taken of grammar questions, and it must be remembered that many of the shorter sentences might equally be classified under grammar.

TABLE SHOWING RELATIVE WEIGHT OF QUESTIONS ON READING, WRITING AND GRAMMAR FOR SEVEN PROVINCIAL EXAMINATIONS.

(i) BY VALUES

	Junior			Senior		
	R.	W.	G.	R.	W.	G.
<i>G</i>	22	62	10	30	60	5
<i>H</i>	13	77	10		50	50*
<i>F</i>	36	27	25	30	40	18
<i>C</i>	22	36	42			

(ii) BY CONTENT

	R.			R.	
	words	words		words	words
<i>B</i>	200	50		300	
<i>D</i>	750	430		725	550
<i>E</i>	740			910	420

Note—The papers of *A* and *J* cannot be classified on this basis and are omitted.

SUMMARY OF EXAMINATION REQUIREMENTS AND PAPERS BY PROVINCES

FRENCH.

A. PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Texts; Fraser and Squair's *High School French Grammar*, pp. 1-118.

Time; One hour and a half.

*In *H*, senior, the language paper only is covered by these figures.

Observations.

This paper cannot be compared on equal terms with matriculation examinations in other provinces, since it admits candidates to the Prince of Wales College, which is a junior college and normal school. Students enter at the beginning of the third year of their high school course. The prescription for the year following matriculation includes a longer assignment of grammar and the reading of a text such as *Le Petit Chose*. Translation is tested by means of a number of very short passages. Grammar questions stress verb forms and include difficult points such as: "When is *ne* redundant as compared with English?"

OUTLINE OF THE EXAMINATION.

MATRICULATION. PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, 1926.

- I Give all the rules you know for the pronunciation of the French "e" without an accent.
- II. Using one English word for each, illustrate the correct pronunciation of:—à, ê, i, ô, ai, eau, ay, ou.
- III. Write in full the demonstrative, the relative, and the indefinite pronouns.
- IV. Write the plural of:— monsieur, tout, lui—24 items.
- V. Write the imperfect and the conditional active of:— vouloir, manger, faire—18 items.
- VI. Give French equivalents for: the property, wicked, the carrot, the west, the loss, the partridge, to tease, eighty-one, three-elevenths, to disturb, to swim, to be born, yesterday,—40 items.
- VII. Turn into English: (1) Est-ce le monsieur dans les bois duquel nous avons chassé?—4 items.
- VIII. Translate into French: (1) It was built by one of the kings of France and restored by Napoleon. (9) How old will you be on July seven, nineteen hundred and twenty-six?—9 items.

B. NOVA SCOTIA.

Texts; Grade XI. *High School French Grammar I—LXXXIII. Specimens of Modern French Prose.* Grade XII. *The Grammar* completed. Sandeau, *Sacs et Parchemins*; Corneille, *Polyeucte*; Molière, *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*.

Time; Two hours in each grade.

Observations.

The papers contain conventional grammar questions, translation of phrases and sentences, the writing of illustrative phrases, vocabulary lists, free composition.

In both grades the paper is too short to make a fair sampling of the texts prescribed for translation. The syllabus has been revised for 1927.¹

Comparing the grade XI paper with those set in 1916 and 1921 certain changes are to be observed. (i) The earlier papers omit specific examination of the elementary points contained in questions 1, 2 of 1926; (ii) the 1926 paper abandons the formal grammar question that was a marked feature of the others, *e.g.*, "How is the English *-ing* translated after a preposition?" Translate: "He left without saying a word."—3 items. Apparently the 1926 paper is easier than its predecessors although it points a new direction in questions 4, 10.

ANALYSIS BY CONTENT.

	XI	XII
Grammar	45 items	15 items
Sentences	50 words	70 words
Free composition		100 words
Translation	200 words	300 words
Vocabulary		25 words

¹See note on page 454.

OUTLINE OF THE EXAMINATION.

GRADE XI.

Nova Scotia, 1926.

1. Put into French: the father, the mother, the child; this woman, this man; some bread, some ink, some pens; bad boys, no girls.
2. Plurals and feminines:—10 items.
3. Complete the following tenses: *je veux*—5 items.
4. Give the principal parts of: *venir*—5 items.
5. French for: her brother, I give her it, he must work—10 items.
6. Translate into English—90 words.
7. Make one original sentence in French with each of the following: *celui, dont, encore, demi, alors*. Translate your five sentences.
8. Translate:—90 words.
9. French for: (1) If he had had his revolver he would have killed me. (2) Would you like to see a dog smoking a pipe?—5 items.
10. English for: (1) *J'avais déjà pu l'accomplir plus d'une fois.* (2) *L'animal parut presque aussitôt au coin du verger.*—5 items.

GRADE XII.

NOVA SCOTIA, 1926

1. Give the principal parts of:—5 items.
2. French for: till to-morrow, in spring—10 items.
3. Make one original sentence in French with each of the following: *d'avantage, enfin, quiconque, depuis, envers*. Translate your five sentences.
4. Write down in French and English the names of twenty objects in the examination room.
5. Translate into English:—80 words.
6. French for: (1) It is not known if her father has gone away to the United States. (2) Some years ago, a

celebrated surgeon from Paris cured a dog with a broken leg.—5 items, 71 words.

7. Translate: "Qu'un peu de votre humeur ou de votre vertu
Soulagerait les maux de ce coeur abattu!"—8 verses, 61 words.
8. English for: (1) J'ai besoin de parcourir ce beau pays dans tous les sens, d'en étudier les moeurs.—5 items, 73 words.
9. Translate: Les visites fréquentes ont commencé, les déclarations sont venues ensuite—80 words.
10. Write a letter in French (about 100 words) to a student in France, relating as simply as you can the life of a student in Canada.

C. NEW BRUNSWICK.

Texts; Grade XI: The New Fraser and Squair Grammar; Macmillan's Second Reader, Lessons 1-25: Racine, Esther. Time; Two hours.

Observations.

The syllabus is under revision, it being considered that classical plays are too advanced for this grade. The maritime provinces collaborate in arranging their high school prescriptions. The paper set in this province uses modern technique in the grammar questions, which, however, occupy a large share of the space. Directions are stated partly in French. There is much use of free composition in various forms, and little translation. The paper gives but small space to the prepared books. The form of this examination marks a recent innovation: in 1924 the paper consisted of translation, 34%; sentences, 24%; and conventional verb questions, 42%. The change brings this examination closer to the form used in Quebec.

ANALYSIS BY VALUES.

Grammar, 42; translation into French, 10; free composition, 26; translation, 22.

OUTLINE OF THE EXAMINATION.

GRADE XI.

NEW BRUNSWICK, 1926.

VALUES

- 22 1. Traduisez en anglais:
Two passages from Esther, 6 verses each.
Two prose passages, 40 words each.
- 10 2. Traduisez en français:
One day Frederick the Great rang, and—100 words.
- 9 3. Supply the proper verb forms, in the following:
Que nous sommes (fatiguer)—9 items.
- 10 4. Write, in French, full sentences containing the following words: qui, dont, que (pronoun), que (conjunction), le (pronoun), le mien, jusqu'au.
- 7 5. Turn in the negative-interrogative form:
Vous êtes à la campagne.—7 items.
- 8 6. Making a full sentence in each case, write, in French, suitable answers to the following questions:
Quel temps fait-il aujourd'hui?—8 items.
- 8 7. Supply, in French, questions for the following answers:—8 items.
- 10 8. Using fictitious names, write, in French, a short letter to a friend with whom you have just spent a week.
- 10 9. Copy the following sentences, writing the italicized words in the plural, and making any other necessary change:
(a) *Ouvre ton livre*.—10 items.

6 10. Write the feminine of: grand, actif—11 items.

D. ONTARIO.

Texts; Middle School (junior matriculation): *The High School French Grammar*; a reader; a short novel; a play.

Upper School (senior matriculation): *The High School French Grammar*; a long novel, or a novel or a play.

Time; Two papers of two and a half hours each in each grade.

Observations.

There are two papers, (i) Composition, (ii) Authors, Grammar and Sight Translation. These papers are essentially the same in form for both examinations. The AUTHORS papers contain three passages from the prescribed work, with one or two extracts for sight translation, which may be prose or verse. Grammar questions are appended to the passages for translation, with, occasionally, a question or two on the subject matter. The papers differ from others of the same form in adding questions on pronunciation. Such questions, and those on grammar, are limited by having to be linked with material found in the passages set. A tentative use of "comprehension questions" has been made in a supplementary Authors paper.

Questions are all set in English. The COMPOSITION papers contain carefully graded sentences of which the vocabulary and construction are traditionally limited to definite portions of the *High School French Grammar*; and a piece of continuous prose based on material from the prescribed texts.

The form of examination in this system has been fixed in its general outlines for a number of years, but lines of development are discernible in the questions on pro-

nunciation, the increased space devoted to sight translation, and the use of the newer type of grammar-testing questions.

ANALYSIS BY CONTENT.

	JUNIOR	SENIOR
Grammar	18 items	20 items
Prepared translation	500 words	525 words
Sight translation	250 words	200 words
Pronunciation	6 items	10 items
Sentences	300 words	300 words
Prose	130 words	250 words

SPECIMEN QUESTIONS IN PRONUNCIATION AND GRAMMAR.

MIDDLE SCHOOL.

ONTARIO, 1926.

4. (a) *auriculaires*. Divide this word into syllables.
 (c) *eût fallu*. How many different vowel sounds are contained in these words?
 (d) *mets*. Indicate three other ways in which the sound of *e* in *mets* is represented in French.
 (e) *monsieur*. Show the pronunciation of this word, by the use of phonetic script or by any other means.
 (f) *J'y mets de plus en plus tous mes efforts*. Mark the silent letters in this sentence.
6. (a) Substitute the correct forms for the infinitives in parenthesis in the following: (i) *en(prendre) garde*.
 (ii) *quand je (veillir), je souffrirai*.
 (b) *Je suis riche, je vais me dépatrier*. Write these sentences in indirect speech, beginning in each case, *il conta qu'il . . .*
 (c) *le bonheur que j'ai perdu*. Substitute *les années* for *le bonheur*, and complete the expression.
 (d) *écoutait, continua*. Account for the tenses in which these verbs are used.

- (e) *je ne ferai plus le commerce, je n'ai plus de goût.*
 Rewrite these sentences replacing *le commerce* and *de goût* by conjunctive pronouns.

E. SASKATCHEWAN.

Texts; Grade XI: *The High School French Grammar*, Lessons I-LII. Two short texts for reading.

Grade XII: *The High School French Grammar*. Two more advanced texts.

Time; Three hours in each grade.

Observations.

The syllabus calls for reading and conversation exercises, dictation, the study of a few irregular verbs. The grade XI paper consists of translation and sentences only. Six passages, averaging 100 words each, are taken from the prescribed books. There is sight translation, 140 words, and three groups of sentences,—6 in each, 160 words in all—test the candidates' knowledge of grammar. The vocabulary of these sentences is easy. There are no questions on continuous prose, free composition, pronunciation or grammar.

In grade XII the paper contains translation, prepared and sight, continuous prose, free composition, sentences, grammar questions. Translation is tested by four prepared passages totalling 790 words, and one sight question of 120. Translation into French includes a continuous prose passage of 120 words, and 16 sentences, some of which are based on the passages assigned for translation, of about 200 words.

The three grammar questions deal with material found in the extracts. They include the principal parts of five verbs and the explanation of two constructions. The sight passages appear to be difficult.

Examination procedure in this province has undergone considerable changes in the last decade. In 1916, for junior matriculation French "half the marks are assigned to grammar and composition". In 1921 the paper is divided into two parts, according to the same classification and a passing mark must be secured in each. By 1924 the grammar questions have disappeared, but candidates are still required to pass in each part. In 1926 the sentences are reduced in volume, and there is no obligation to make a separate pass in each half.

The senior paper follows the same procedure up to 1924, but in 1926 gains decidedly in scope and variety by the inclusion of free composition and continuous prose.

ANALYSIS BY CONTENT

	GRADE XI	GRADE XII
Prepared Translation	600 words	790 words
Sight Translation	140 words	122 words
Sentences	160 words	200 words
Continuous Prose		120 words
Grammar		7 items
Free Composition		100 words.

F. MANITOBA.

Texts; Grade XI: *The New Elementary French Grammar*, Lessons I-XXXIX. Two texts for reading.

Grade XII: *The New Fraser and Squair Complete French Grammar*, Part II. Two texts for reading.

Time; Two papers of three hours each in each grade.

Observations.

The two papers are entitled Authors and Grammar. In grade XI there are six passages totalling 760 words

from the assigned texts and one of sight translation. Nine questions are asked on the subject matter and there are a few grammar questions attached to the extracts set for translation. Grade XI grammar is tested by means of conventional questions, including one of the "formal" type, and by one series of phrases in which errors are to be corrected. Sentences and continuous prose are employed.

ANALYSIS BY VALUES.

	GRADE XI	GRADE XII
Grammar	25	18
Sentences	21	16
Prose	6	12
Free Composition		12
Translation	36	30
Subject Matter	12	12

In grade XII there is a change of method; the paper contains applied grammar questions and free composition, and uses French in formulating some of the questions. Translation runs to 800 words, and there is an interesting ruling to the effect that half the translation marks are to be given for the sight passage. A passage of dictation is also prescribed for this grade.¹ By comparison with previous papers it is evident that the form of examination in this province is in a state of evolution. In 1921 there are two papers (i) Authors and (ii) Grammar, Composition and Sight Translation. In 1925 these processes are combined in one paper of two parts, the second of which is called Authors and Sight Translation:

¹The prescription is the same as that for first year arts of the University of Manitoba. So far (1927) the dictation test has not been applied to grade XII candidates for matriculation.

but there is no stated requirement of pass standing in each part. In 1926 the second paper is restored, and the senior grammar paper breaks new ground with a completion question and free composition. Some of the questions are stated in French.

OUTLINE OF THE EXAMINATION.

GRAMMAR—GRADE XI.

MANITOBA, 1926.

VALUES

- | | | |
|----|----|--|
| 3 | 1. | (1) Of the first ten cardinal numerals in French write down those whose last consonant is sounded when you are simply counting. |
| 4 | | (2) Write in words in French: 71, 75—7 items. |
| 1 | | (3) Give the comparative forms of <i>petit</i> and <i>peu</i> , respectively. |
| 4 | | (4) Name eight French verbs that are conjugated with <i>être</i> . |
| 4 | | (5) Answer affirmatively in French in a complete sentence the following questions:
(a) <i>Sortez-vous du théâtre?</i> —4 items. |
| 2 | | (6) Write in words in French: in 1926. |
| 3 | | (7) Write the following words or expressions in the plural: <i>Mademoiselle</i> , <i>leur amie</i> ,—6 items. |
| 3 | | (8) Write the feminine form of the following adjectives: <i>flatteur</i> ,—6 items. |
| 16 | 2. | Translate into French:
I have his book and he has mine.—16 items, 100 words. |
| 26 | 3. | Translate into French:
He would buy me some flowers if he went to the market.—13 items, 95 words. |
| 12 | 4. | Re-write the following sentences in French, cor- |

recting any errors you may find:

Il entre la chambre.—12 items, 56 words.

- 10 5. Write the following verb-forms:

1st plural pres. indic. of *manger*.—20 items.

- 12 6. Translate into French:

One night Gambetta, the great French statesman, was driving from Paris to his home in the country. It was very dark and, as he had no lamps, he had to go slowly . . .—150 words.

GRAMMAR—GRADE XII.

MANITOBA, 1926.

VALUE

- 12 1. Remplacez les tirets par des mots convenables et les infinitifs par les formes nécessaires:
- (3) Ce ——— eux qui l'—— fait; —— est facile
—— voir cela.
- (5) Le thé est trop sucré —— boire; demandez
—— garçon —— nous — donner une autre
tasse.—7 items.
- 8 2. Répondez aux questions suivantes. (Chaque réponse doit contenir au moins douze mots):
- (1) Que pensez-vous de l'hiver canadien?—4 items.
- 8 3. Write:
- The past participle of: connaître, vivre; the 1st plu. future of: envoyer, voir, *etc.*—12 items.
- The French for: let him write;—4 items.
- 33 4. Traduisez en français:
- (1) It was so cold that day that his mother wanted him to put on his warmest overcoat.
- (7) She would like you to give her the best books you have. Give her two and tell her to read them carefully before giving them back.—9 items, 200 words.

- 6 5. Traduisez en français:
- (a) We left Southampton about four in the afternoon and got into the channel in about two hours.—50 words.
- 18 (b) A traveller one day passed by a vast ancient city and asked one of its inhabitants how long it had been founded. "It is a mighty city," was the reply, "but we do not know how long it has existed."—150 words.
- 15 6. Ecrivez une composition d'environ 180 mots sur un des sujets suivants:
- (a) Thomas Chatterton;
- (b) Une visite à Paris;
- (c) La simple foi de Prascovie;
- (d) Le cuvier devenu maître chez lui.

G. ALBERTA.

Texts; First Unit. Fraser and Squair, *The New Elementary French Grammar*, Part I, Lessons 1-22. A graduated reader.

Second Unit. The same *Grammar*, Lessons 23-39. A more advanced reader and a play.

Third Unit. The same *Grammar*, Parts I and II. A novel.

Time; Three hours in each unit.

Observations.

The organization of French teaching in Alberta differs from that of other provinces. Matriculation credits can be obtained for one, two, or three units, each representing a year's work. The two-unit course corresponds approximately to the junior matriculation that requires three or four years in other parts of the Dominion.

The *Handbook for Secondary Schools* devotes a page

to the advantages of modern language study and gives reasons for discontinuing the direct method, which had been in use in a modified form in some of the larger schools. Briefly, these reasons are:—too large classes, lack of opportunity to use the language, shortage of trained specialists, lack of time. The oral examination in French has been abandoned, but teachers are recommended to continue as far as possible the oral side of their teaching.

General instructions to teachers emphasize correctness in pronunciation and accent. Oral work is to be given as large a place as time permits. Teachers are advised to adopt a definite system for the teaching of pronunciation, which may or may not be based on phonetics; but in view of the plan of the prescribed text-book it is recommended that the phonetic system be adopted wherever possible. None of this is reflected in the examination.

The examinations for the three units are carefully graded, and the marks allotted to each question show the shift of emphasis as the pupil progresses from one unit to the next. Grammar is stressed in the first unit, translation into French in the second, reading and writing in French are important in the third.

GRAMMAR is usually tested by functional questions of conventional type on the plural of nouns, conjugation of tenses, writing expressions in the feminine, *etc.* Occasionally there is a question in formal grammar, such as: "When is *être* used as auxiliary of tense in French?"

SENTENCES form, for Units I and II, the bulk of the paper, and are well chosen to cover the grammatical field, though there is perhaps an unnecessary insistence on school-room French in such examples as: "Was it I that those gentlemen bowed to? Yes, it was to you they bowed."

TRANSLATION The paper for French I is specially inter-

esting as indicating the standard of reading ability attainable in one year. The text for Unit II is *Le Gendre de M. Poirier*, a play presenting considerable difficulty, and sometimes prescribed for fifth year work in another province. Some of the grammar questions are based on the two extracts chosen for translation.

In Unit III the assigned book is *Madame Thérèse*, and the questions change a little in form. There is one continuous passage for translation, and a second selection consisting of ten rather difficult sentences detached from their context. Sight translation is rated at 6% in the second year and 10% in the third. In both II and III there are brief questions designed to test the pupil's knowledge of the subject matter. These are listed below as "literary questions."

In Unit III, 20% of the marks are assigned to free composition, which is tested by means of an essay of not less than 100 words. An outline of the action is suggested for the theme, "A robbery of your house."

The development from earlier types of examination in this province can be perceived by comparing the scale of values for Unit II with that for the junior matriculation papers of 1924 and 1921. It will be seen that the emphasis has shifted from grammar and translation to sentences and prose. Questions in the earlier papers had already begun to use the applied grammar form in such items as: "Combine the following in one sentence by introducing a relative pronoun: C'est un enfant. Tout le monde a confiance en lui", or the transposition from indirect to direct speech.

If we compare the Unit II paper with the matriculation papers set in this province in 1921 and 1924, it is evident that there has been a change in the values assigned to translation from and into French.

	MATRICULATION		UNIT II
	1921	1924	1926
Grammar	27	23	10
Translation	32	32	22
Sentences and prose	36	36	62
Free composition	3	3	0
Questions on texts	2	6	6

This development is in the opposite direction to that noted in province J, where the tendency has been to increase the stress on translation.

ANALYSIS BY VALUES.

	I	II	III
Grammar	31	10	5
Translation	29	22	30
Sentences	40	50	20
Continuous prose		12	20
Free composition			20
Literary questions		6	5

OUTLINE OF EXAMINATION:

FRENCH I.

ALBERTA, 1926.

VALUES

- 5 1. Give the plural of the following words:—10 items.
- 5 2. Translate into French:
He gave it to me.—5 items.
- 5 3. Translate into French:
She has gone.—5 items.
- 5 4. Write the following expressions in the feminine:
un bon homme:—5 items.
- 4 5. Translate into French:
Have you any bread and butter?—4 items.
- 10 6. Write out in full the future indicative and past definite of the following verbs: avoir; venir; aller; pouvoir; savoir.

- 26 7. Translate into French:
The teacher speaks slowly and the pupils try to understand him.—10 items.
- 8 8. Translate into English:
Un aveugle qui n'avait pas même un chien pour lui servir de guide, marchait dans la rue et sentait avec son bâton si rien ne s'opposait à sa marche. Il était encore assez jeune et fort, mais il ne voyait plus. Il heurta avec sa canne un vieillard aux cheveux blancs, si vieux et si faible qu'il ne pouvait plus marcher . . .—123 words.
- 6 (a) Write out in full the tense of which each of the following regular verbs is a part:
marchait; s'opposait; heurta.
- 3 (b) Write out the feminine of: fort; blancs; vieux.
- 2 (c) Lève-toi; montre-moi:
Put these two expressions into the plural form.
9. Translate into English:
- 10 (a) En 1870 l'empire de Napoléon fut renversé à la suite des défaites dans la guerre contre l'Allemagne, et la république fut proclamée en France pour la troisième fois. Donc, au lieu d'avoir un roi, comme l'Angleterre, ou un empereur, comme la Russie, la France a simplement un président de la République.—140 words.
- 11 (b) En juillet la chaleur est encore plus pénible, le travail plus dur, car il faut moissonner le blé, c'est-à-dire, le couper, le réunir en gerbe, puis en "meules" avant de le faire passer dans la machine à battre. Là aussi les petits paysans savent se rendre utiles, et souvent à quatorze ans ils peuvent se servir de la faucille pour couper la moisson—120 words.

FRENCH II.

ALBERTA, 1926.

- 4 1. When is *être* used as auxiliary of tense in French?
Illustrate your answer with sentences.
- 10 2. Translate into French:
She has gone to bed.—10 items, 46 words.
- 34 3. Translate into French:
What are you going to do in the country?
I am going to visit my uncle and cousins.—12
items, 180 words.
- 12 4. Translate into French:
I have a young friend who lives in Quebec. I had
a letter from him this morning in which he invites
me to go with his father, brother and himself.—
65 words.
- 8 5. Translate into English:—165 words from the
prepared text.
- 2 (a) (b) Two questions on the subject matter.
- 4 (c) Write out in full the principal parts of: *ferai*;
pris; *avait*; *meurt*.
- 3 (d) Translate into French:
1. I paid six francs for it.—3 items.
- 8 6. Translate into English:—140 words from the
prepared text.
- 2 (a) Write out in full the present indicative of:
conduisait; *allons-nous-en*.
- 3 (b) Translate into French:
1. She has not gone away.—3 items, 12 words.
- 4 (c) (d) Two questions on the subject matter.
- 6 7. Translate at sight into English:
Le Sansonnet (starling) *Volé*. *Un vieux chasseur*
gardait dans sa chambre un sansonnet, qui savait
parler quelques paroles. Par exemple, quand son
maître appelait:—140 words.

FRENCH III.

ALBERTA, 1926.

20 1. Translate into French:

How long have you been reading? I have been reading and sewing for an hour and a half.—10 items, 145 words.

20 2. Translate into French:

Napoleon III, Emperor of the French and nephew of the great Napoleon, was chatting one day with his wife, the Empress Eugénie, in the latter's boudoir in the Palace of the Tuileries.—120 words.

20 3. Write a composition in French of not less than 100 words on a robbery of your house, touching on such points as: when you went to bed; how you were wakened by a noise; you decide to investigate; you get a light; go downstairs; see a man running out of the back door; what he stole, . . .

10 4. Translate into English:

A passage from *Mme. Thérèse*.—180 words.

3 (a) Two short questions on the story.

5 (b) Write in full the pres. indic. of: *fit*; *secourir*; *avançant*; *disaient*.

2 (c) Question on the authorship.

10 5. Translate into English:

(a) *On finit par se rendre maître du feu.*(b) *Mais il faut que tout s'en mêle.*—10 items from same text.

10 6. Translate at sight into English:

Montréal est la métropole, la grande porte à une extrémité de cette voie qui traverse le Canada, la porte de l'avenue qui mène au Pacifique. La ville s'étale, au large, entre le Mont-Royal, boisé et semé de belles résidences . . .—134 words.

H. BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Texts; Grade XI. None prescribed. Teachers are free to select from a recommended list. Siepmann's *Primary French Course* and Fraser and Squair's *New Elementary French Grammar* are in general use, and texts of the usual type are read. The official syllabus contains lists of words and phrases.

Grade XII. Molière, *Les Précieuses Ridicules*.

Time; Grade XI, two papers of two hours each.

Grade XII, two papers of three hours each.

Observations.

The lists of words are arranged by years and further divided under nouns, verbs, adverbs, *etc.* Without counting the phrases, there are more than a thousand words in these lists; the nouns fall for the most part into the grammatical category of "concrete". The phrases contain useful locutions for every-day intercourse, epistolary forms, class-room directions and a short list of idiomatic expressions.

The words in these vocabularies are forbidden to be learned in lists. The memorization of a few poems or fables is recommended during the three years, and collections of poems are listed. There is a short bibliography of dictionaries and works on pronunciation.

The examination is based on the direct method formula. Grammar is tested by completion and substitution questions and by the writing of illustrative sentences. There is a vocabulary question calling for *explication de mots*, and two questions on free composition, one of which gives a full outline and might almost be called "free translation into French", and the other asks for original treatment of a theme.

Translation from and into the language studied occu-

pies a comparatively small space in these papers. There is a passage of over 100 words of prose and one of 140 words of sight translation, containing certain difficulties of vocabulary. No questions are asked on pronunciation. It is to be noted that the questions in grade XI are set in English.

The paper in French literature for grade XII suggests a wider range of study than is generally found in high schools, and indicates an attempt to bridge the gap between secondary and higher education. The examination appears to demand a practical working knowledge of the language together with some appreciation of the literary values and social background of the text assigned.

ANALYSIS BY VALUES:

	GRADE XI	GRADE XII (Language only)
Grammar	10	35
Translation	13	
Prose, etc.	20	50
Free composition	57	
Vocabulary		15

OUTLINE OF EXAMINATIONS

GRAMMAR—GRADE XI. BRITISH COLUMBIA, 1926.

VALUES

- 20 1. Explain in French, the following words: le rhume,
—10 items.
- 8 2. Complete the following sentences by putting the
verbs, printed in italics, in the tense required by
the context:—Ses manières affectées ne m'ont pas
plaire.—8 items.
- 12 3. Change the words in italics, if necessary, so as to

make them agree with the context:—Les *cheval* sont *aller* à l'écurie car les *travail* des *champs* sont *finir* . . .—12 items.

- 20 4. Write sentences in French, using the following verbs so as to illustrate the use of the tenses marked after them: *dire* (pres. subj.)—5 items.
- 10 5. Put into French:—
We shall go for a walk.—5 items.
- 30 6. Put into French:
He will be back in an hour and I can ask him for some. I shall be happy to help you and we can begin to work if you wish to make the boat. There is enough wood to make two. I remember the one we made some years ago. We succeeded in building a splendid boat. It is quite as good as theirs and it is about twice as big. We shall work in the open air because it is healthier. Since the work will be rather noisy we shall do it in the open country and as soon as possible. This boat will be the best you ever saw.

TRANSLATION—GRADE XI.

- 35 1. Write a letter, in the first person, describing a visit to the country. Use the following material:—
Outline of 150 words.
- 40 2. Treat *two* of the following in French, about a page for each:—4 subjects.
- 25 3. Put into English:
Je ne saurais oublier le spectacle à l'embouchure du fleuve. Les bateaux de pêche, toutes voiles déployées, avaient quitté le quai et, entourés de mouettes qui les suivaient, descendaient lentement vers la mer.—140 words.

FRENCH LANGUAGE—GRADE XII.

30 1. Traduction:—

This morning I received several letters, among which there was one from my brother, who has arrived at Marseilles. He will stay there until you come, unless you send him a telegram.—88 words.

15 2. (a) Répondez aux questions suivantes, en employant le pronom personnel qui correspond à chaque nom en italique. Ex: Voyez-vous le *château*? Oui je *le* vois.—5 items.

(b) Mettez le pronom relatif convenable:—3 items.

15 3. (a) Donnez l'équivalent de:—

Nobody knows it. He reads well but he sings better.—8 items.

(b) Placez les mots suivants à l'endroit qui convient: *savant, métier, élite, éclat, amateur*. This author belongs to the — in his own town, for he writes as a true — in his special subject but in other matters he is only a sort of —; after all it is not the — of a writer to do everything with much —.

20 4. Mettez chaque verbe en italique au temps convenable selon la signification du texte.

Soulignez chaque verbe.

Autrefois les Parisiennes *aller* à pied par la ville et *sortir* tous les jours pour faire leurs emplettes. A une certaine époque chaque ménagère *faire* son marché . . .—20 items.

20 5. Français de:—

(a) In the autumn of 1914, Canada sent to England about 3,300 soldiers.—5 items, 68 words.

FRENCH LITERATURE—GRADE XII.

- 20 1. Traduisez le passage suivant et faites quelques réflexions sur sa signification:—Belle demande! Aux Grands Comédiens. Il n'y a qu'eux qui soient capables de faire valoir les choses; . . .—67 words.
- 35 2. Développez *deux* des sujets suivants (en français): —4 subjects; 2 literary (XVII century), 2 descriptive.
- 15 3. Mettez ces phrases en français moderne:
(a) Ce nécessaire va nous avancer les commodités de la conversation.—5 items.
- 20 4. Donnez en français une ou deux lignes d'explication sur *dix* des mots suivants:
La commedia dell'arte—14 items.
- 10 5. Traduisez le paragraphe suivant:
Quel meilleur symbole pourrait-on trouver des temps nouveaux dans ce qu'ils offrent de plus haut; la conscience professionnelle, la ferme décision de concilier coûte que coûte l'intérêt d'un seul et celui de tous, la minutie infinie dans le soin apporté au détail . . .—110 words.

H. QUEBEC.

Texts: Grade XI, Berthon's *Grammar*, Dent's *First Exercises*, two texts for reading.

Time: Two papers of two and a half hours each.

Observations.

Grade XI is the fourth high school grade. There is no higher provincial examination. Papers are designated Grammar and Composition. The grammar paper makes extensive use of the substitution type of question and gives considerable importance to verbs. It is to be noted

that there is very little translation into French, and none at all from it. The papers reflect closely the direct method as practised in this province.

In the composition paper there appears one item not found elsewhere, namely the *histoire à reproduire*. This is of course a group audition test, and is supplemented in certain schools by individual oral tests. The paper has also a long assignment of free composition, and vocabulary questions using variants of the *explication* process.

ANALYSIS BY CONTENT.

Plurals, 19 items; verbs, 38; pronouns, 5; syntax, 4; free composition, 250 words; audition test, 150 words.

OUTLINE OF EXAMINATION

FRENCH GRAMMAR.

QUEBEC, 1926.

1. Mettez au pluriel tous les mots possibles:
(a) Le bijou qu'elle a acheté hier, elle l'a déjà perdu.—
3 items.
2. Faites les changements nécessaires aux verbes en italique:
(a) Si j'étais malade *envoyer*-vous chercher le médecin?
—4 items.
3. Mettez les verbes en italique au temps qui convient:
(a) Quand il *venir* demain nous *aller* jouer ensemble.—
4 items.
4. Donnez le participe passé, masculin et féminin, des verbes suivants: battre, boire—10 items.
5. Traduisez en français:
(a) Let us stay there a half hour longer.—7 items.
6. Remplacez par un pronom les mots répétés:
(c) J'ai donné une rose à ma mère et j'aimerais que vous donniez une rose à ma mère.—5 items.

7. Remplacez l'infinitif des phrases suivantes par le *parfait* (auquel on donne aussi le nom de *passé continu* ou *passé indéfini*).

(c) Les pommes que tu *prendre les manger* tu?—5 items.

8. Donnez à toutes les personnes:

(a) Le *futur* de *aller, mourir, pleuvoir*.—15 items.

FRENCH COMPOSITION.

1. Histoire à reproduire. (See below).
2. Ecrivez une composition de 250 mots environ sur un des sujets suivants:
(a) Mon sport favori.—3 items.
3. Transformez les phrases suivantes en donnant le contraire des mots en italique:
(a) Celui qu'on *aime* n'a point de *défauts*.—4 items.
4. Ajoutez un nom masculin et un nom féminin convenable à chacun des adjectifs suivants:—las, mou.—10 items.
5. Au moyen de phrases, indiquez la différence entre:
(a) Le poêle, la poêle.—5 items.
6. Répondez en français aux questions suivantes:
(a) A quelle heure avez-vous commencé cet examen? —5 items.
7. Faites entrer dans des phrases les mots suivants et leurs homonymes:
(a) Le poids.—5 items.

Question 1 of the above paper is the reproduction in writing of the following passage, which is read twice to the candidates. Two minutes are allowed for each reading.

TOUT EST BIEN QUI FINIT BIEN

Un jour deux charrettes (carts) se rencontrèrent dans un chemin étroit. C'était un chemin si étroit qu'elles ne

pouvaient pas passer à la fois. "Reculez un peu votre charrette pour me laisser passer, dit l'un des paysans à l'autre. Mais non, répondit l'autre paysan, je ne reculerais pas. Laissez-moi passer le premier, et vous passerez ensuite" . . .—150 words.

GERMAN

Six provinces include German in their high school programme, and set leaving and matriculation examinations in it. Both syllabus and examination correspond fairly closely, province by province, to those for French, so that detailed analysis of the papers is unnecessary: the more so since in province D, where more than half of the pupils in German are located, the examinations for all modern languages are cast in the same mould. Certain differences do, however, come to light when values are compared for the three systems, *G*, *H*, *F*, which make a practice of publishing their allotment of marks.

COMPARATIVE VALUES IN FRENCH AND GERMAN.

	GRAMMAR		TRANSLATION		COMPOSITION	
	Fr.	Ger.	Fr.	Ger.	Fr.	Ger.
<i>G</i>	10%	24%	22%	44%	62%	32%
<i>H</i>	10	23	13	35	77	42
<i>F</i>	25	37	36	24	27	39

The three scales agree in giving more weight to German grammar than to French, and the same tendency is observable in the practice of *E*, which retains grammar questions in its German paper, though they have wholly disappeared from the French. The same variety of form exists in the phrasing of the questions; completion and substitution types are used, especially in examination *H*; there is the conventional request to decline and conjugate,

and the usual translation into, and out of, German. One marked difference must, however, be noted. The formal grammar question is much commoner in German than in French. Thus: 'How are adjectives compared in German?' (*G*) "Name seven inseparable particles. What effect have they on the conjugation of the verb?" (*E*) "Explain and illustrate: optative subjunctive." (*F*, grade XII, which has 8 items of formal grammar).

ITALIAN AND SPANISH

Only one province, *D*, gives school examinations in Spanish and Italian, though *B* announces Spanish for 1928 in grades XI and XII. The papers are of similar form to those used in the other languages: translation, composition, functional grammar attached to set passages. The earlier Spanish papers had used a greater freedom, setting a free composition and asking for statements of grammatical rules, but this adventure was soon abandoned.

OLD AND NEW TYPES OF EXAMINATIONS

Considered technically, as instruments of educational measurement, these examinations leave much to be desired. Modern practice is developing slowly in the direction of economy of labour and objectivity of method, and the guiding principle might be formulated in the phrase "one thing at a time". Now the outstanding defect of the translation type of language paper is its exasperating habit of confusing the issue. A pupil may deal successfully with a difficult subjunctive in a sentence designed to try his skill in that usage, but be penalized for a quite irrelevant error in vocabulary or spelling, points that can easily be tested by means of a prose passage.

Or again he may be perfectly cognizant of the meaning of a paragraph of French, but lose credit for lack of a nice facility in English phrasing, an ability that has nothing whatever to do with his skill in reading French.

If such confusion is disastrous to the pupil it is no less wasteful of time and effort to the examiner, upon whom it imposes a vast amount of reading and the necessity for making an unending series of small decisions with no certain standard of measurement to guide him. Where large groups of examiners are working together a high degree of consistency can be attained, but only at the cost of much time and irritation, by classifying such rulings; but this is not objectivity, nor is it probable that a second group of examiners would produce the same results if left to make their own canon of acceptance and rejection.

The committee's tests have familiarized a large number of teachers with various types of questions, and numbers of them have signified their desire to see "comprehension tests" applied in place of part of the long translation questions that now blacken so many acres of paper. These have already been tried in the first year examination of a large university, with amazingly successful results.

This paper was made up of four passages, each having six appended questions, two passages to be translated into French, and two short tests in free composition. Specimens of the comprehension questions follow.

(DO NOT TRANSLATE THE FOLLOWING PARAGRAPHS. *Read them carefully and show that you understand them by answering each of the questions in ENGLISH. No credit will be given for questions answered in FRENCH.*)

1. Un jeune élégant de Madrid se rendait à Cadix avec

deux douzaines de belles chemises qu'il avait fait venir de Londres. Des brigands l'arrêtèrent près de la Carolina, et, après lui avoir pris toutes les pièces d'or qu'il avait dans sa bourse, sans compter ses bagues, sa montre et d'autres articles de valeur qu'un jeune homme aussi distingué ne pouvait manquer d'avoir, le chef des voleurs lui fit remarquer poliment que le linge de sa bande, obligée qu'elle était d'éviter les endroits habités, avait grand besoin de blanchissage. Les chemises furent déployées, admirées, et le capitaine, disant "Entre cavaliers, telle liberté est permise", en mit quelques-unes dans son bissac, puis ôta les noires guenilles qu'il portait depuis six semaines au moins, et se couvrit de la plus belle soie de son prisonnier.

- (1) Où est-ce que le jeune élégant allait?
- (2) Qu'est-ce qui est arrivé au jeune élégant?
- (3) Qu'est-ce que le chef des voleurs a fait remarquer au sujet du linge de sa bande?
- (4) Enumérez les différentes choses que les voleurs ont prises au voyageur.
- (5) Depuis combien de temps le capitaine portait-il sa chemise?
- (6) De quoi le capitaine s'est-il couvert?

3. Prodigue à l'excès quand son ambition était en jeu, Dubois se montrait d'une avarice sordide envers tous ceux qu'il jugeait incapables de servir ses intérêts. Les courtisans, connaissant la grande influence qu'il exerçait sur le régent Philippe dont il avait été précepteur, saisissaient toutes les occasions de lui être agréables. Un jour, un laquais fut chargé de lui apporter une superbe corbeille de fleurs; il s'était déjà plusieurs fois acquitté de pareils messages sans jamais avoir reçu la moindre récompense. Fatigué d'accomplir une besogne aussi peu lucrative, il

déposa brusquement la corbeille sur la table en disant: "Voici des fleurs que vous envoie mon maître.—Plaît-il? s'écria Dubois; est-ce ainsi que tu remplis tes fonctions? Tiens, prends ce siège; nous allons changer de rôle, et tâche une autre fois de mettre à profit ce que je vais t'enseigner." S'avançant respectueusement vers le laquais il lui dit, en lui présentant la corbeille; "Monsieur, je suis chargé par mon maître de vous prier de vouloir bien accepter ce petit cadeau.—Vraiment? reprit malicieusement le valet, c'est très aimable à lui; et tiens, mon brave garçon, voici deux écus pour toi."

- (1) Envers qui Dubois se montrait-il avaricieux?
- (2) Pourquoi les courtisans voulaient-ils être agréables à Dubois?
- (3) Qu'est-ce que le laquais fut chargé d'apporter à Dubois?
- (4) De quoi le laquais était-il fatigué?
- (5) Qu'est-ce que le laquais a voulu enseigner à Dubois?
- (6) Quelle leçon Dubois a-t-il voulu donner au laquais?

This paper proved satisfactory both in reliability, 83, and in its distribution of the students.

The completion and adaptation types of grammar question are already in general use, and there are indications that some examining bodies are alive to the duplication of work involved in using sentences and continuous prose in the same paper. Free composition is increasingly applied as a test of writing ability, though its scoring is at present likely to be more subject to personal impressions than that of any other linguistic process; however,

when teachers and examiners learn the use of the newly-developed composition scale,¹ this disability will be removed.

Probably the fundamental cause of this wide variety of examination method and of the wasteful inexactitude of most of the papers set is to be found in the widespread failure to distinguish between teaching methods and testing devices. When examinations are regarded as a test of ability to read French, and not of the power to construe, let us say, *Le Petit Chose*; when it is understood that the student needs to recognize in reading many more points of accidence and syntax than he will require to use in writing or speaking; then there will be radical changes in modern language testing methods.

¹This is a scale composed of specimens of free composition on the same subject. For further details of the construction and working of this scale see Vol. I.

THE RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CANADIAN MODERN LANGUAGE TESTS IN CANADA AND ENGLAND

At the beginning of the present investigation the American and Canadian committees were confronted with the problem of obtaining an exact measure of achievement in modern languages of the schools and colleges. Certain measures of achievement already existed in the form of examinations, but there were many objections to their use for a general survey. They were suited rather to special conditions, to special classes or to special districts, had never been standardized, and took too long to administer. The valuation of the answers involved too great variation due to the subjective nature of the questions. It was felt that, if a satisfactory and comprehensive view of modern language achievement throughout the country was to be obtained, better tests must be devised. Such tests must be easy to administer, must fall within the length of the average class-period, must be applicable to all grades of instruction, and susceptible of objective scoring. After much experimentation with various techniques tests were completed which seemed to do all that was required. In order that these tests might be equally suitable for American and Canadian pupils the final forms were based on the results of experimental administrations in the schools of both countries. The tests were published in the United States as the "American Council Alpha Tests" and in Canada as the "Canadian Modern Language Tests."

THE CANADIAN MODERN LANGUAGE TESTS

The tests in the different languages are parallel in form, each consisting of four parts which can be administered in two or at most three class-periods. Part I consists of a vocabulary test of 100 words (in French 75) each of which is followed by five English words. The pupil shows his knowledge of the foreign word by underlining the one English word which corresponds in meaning to the French, German, Italian or Spanish word. The French, German and Spanish vocabulary tests are based on word counts¹ and contain a sampling of the words arranged in order of frequency. As no Italian word count exists the Italian vocabulary tests were based on a list of useful words compiled from a study of the vocabularies of a large number of grammars and readers.

Part II is a functional grammar test consisting of 50 items. The grammar tests do not employ the same methods. The French and Spanish make use of various techniques (for the most part completion or selection) choosing for each item the one that seems best suited. The German test is of the selection type. The Italian test of 100 items is of the completion type.

Part III is a comprehension or silent reading test consisting of a number of paragraphs graded according to difficulty. This test makes use of the Thorndike-McCall paragraph reading technique. The pupils show their comprehension of the paragraph by answering, in their own language, questions based upon it.

Part IV is a free composition test consisting of a picture about which the pupils are required to write a short composition. Much of the material obtained from the

¹V. A. C. Henmon: *A French Word Book*, Madison, Wis., 1924; B. Q. Morgan: *A German Word Book*, New York, 1927; M. A. Buchanan: *A Graded Spanish Word Book*, Toronto, 1927.

administration of this test was used in the construction of composition¹ scales for the purpose of grading composition.

The time required for each part of the test is: vocabulary, 15 minutes; grammar, 25 minutes; silent reading, 32 minutes; free composition, 8 minutes; a total of one hour and twenty minutes. Schools having class-periods of 45 minutes can administer the tests in two periods. Those with shorter periods must use three class-periods, giving the vocabulary and free composition in one period.

By the use of these four parts a much more accurate measure of a pupil's linguistic achievement can be obtained than by any two hour and a half examination yet devised. In comparing the tests with the traditional examination two points stand out distinctly: (1) The enormously greater student response per time unit obtained by tests than by examinations. (2) Greater objectivity in scoring of the tests. The greater student response is obtained by the use of a technique that enables the student to avoid long written answers. Frequently with two students of equal linguistic ability, the written examination becomes a test of speed in writing. This is entirely avoided in the vocabulary and grammar tests, and even in the silent reading test long written answers are not necessary.

In the matter of scoring it is plain that the vocabulary and grammar tests are highly objective. Persons having no knowledge of the foreign language can score these tests by means of keys. Such a high degree of objectivity has not been obtained in the silent reading test, but even so it still far surpasses any written examination in objectivity of scoring.

¹See article on composition scales, Vol. I.

SOME LIMITATIONS OF THE TESTS

These tests are not intended to measure oral-aural ability and cultural content. They are designed to measure knowledge of the written language only, and to measure other things only in so far as they are dependent on ability in vocabulary, grammar and comprehension. This must not be taken to indicate that the committees wish to neglect or to minimize the importance of oral-aural ability or cultural training. At the present time, however, written tests of oral-aural ability are not practicable or at least do not yet exist in satisfactory form. The only method of measuring these abilities is an oral examination using carefully prepared sets of questions. Such an examination is certain to give highly subjective results which would not be comparable from place to place nor from year to year. This is not an argument against oral examinations, which seem to be both necessary and useful. It explains, however, why no oral-aural test is included in the present testing programme. The committees have not given up the idea of satisfactory aural comprehension tests, such tests being partially completed for French and Spanish.

The absence of an oral-aural test may seem to make the tests unfair to any system that puts oral proficiency in the first place. However, it must be remembered that oral-aural ability is dependent to a great extent on the two basic skills, vocabulary and grammar.¹

CANADIAN SCHOOLS

In February, 1926, a wide administration was made of the Canadian modern language tests in order to secure a representative sampling of the school population of each

¹See *Written Tests as a Measure of Oral Achievement* in this volume.

of the various provinces. Through the co-operation of the educational authorities of each province a list of typical schools was secured. These schools were then requested to administer as large a number of tests as possible some time in February, preferably between the 10th and the 15th. It was planned to have all the tests administered approximately at the same date. Inasmuch as the tests were distributed from one end of Canada to the other this did not prove possible. There is, therefore, a variation of approximately four weeks in the time of the administration of the tests; but as the testing was evenly distributed over that period, it is not felt that this affects the norms, which may be taken to represent the average achievement of Canadian classes about March 1st. The tests were distributed in such a way that the results may be regarded as a fair sampling of the linguistic achievement of Canadian high schools for four years. The fifth year results are almost entirely from Ontario schools.

The tests were scored partly by the teachers in the schools where the tests were administered and partly in the office of the investigators. To insure uniformity the tests scored by the teachers were checked by the scorers in the central office.

A total of 16,981 French tests, 3,377 German tests and 534 Spanish tests were administered in Canadian schools about the 1st of March, making a total of approximately 21,000 tests. These tests were distributed about equally between vocabulary, grammar, silent reading and free composition. Thus approximately 4,000 pupils were tested in French, 900 in German and slightly over 100 in Spanish.

The figures given above do not include the results from

the province of Quebec. As in the schools of Quebec the second language is begun in the third or fourth grade, the results from this province are treated separately.¹ The French tests were administered in the English schools of Quebec, and special English tests of similar character were prepared by the Canadian committee and administered in the French schools.

In addition to the tests given in secondary schools, approximately 2,500 French tests were administered in college classes. Widely varying conditions in different colleges have made it difficult to analyse these results. A very small number represent beginners' courses, but for the most part they are from first and second year classes in colleges where French is required for entrance. This entrance credit may represent from two to five years' high school French. On this account results from colleges are not included in this report.

The German tests in early trials developed weaknesses that made it necessary to revise them. It was thus impossible to administer these tests at the same time as the French tests. The German tests were therefore administered in Canadian schools in February, 1927. As in the case of the French tests there was considerable variation in the time of administration so that the results represent the average achievement about the 1st of March.

Tables 1 to 4 show the distribution of scores, the medians, the upper and lower quartiles, the percentile ranks, and the number of cases for the five years of high school French in the four Canadian modern language tests. Tables 5 to 8 show the same facts for the German. Although the number of cases for 3½ years, and even

¹See pp. 774, 750.

for $2\frac{1}{2}$ years, is too small to calculate reliable percentile ranks they are nevertheless given. The norms are based on medians which represent the average performance of the classes. The median is the score of the student who ranks exactly in the middle of the class when it is arranged in order of merit. This measure is used in educational work in preference to the arithmetic mean because it is more easily calculated and is less influenced by extremes. Figures under frequency represent the number of pupils having the score in question. Thus in table 1 we see that 119 first year pupils have scores between 19 and 21. Such pupils are said to have a percentile rank of 81, which means that a first year student having a vocabulary score between 19 and 21 has exceeded the score of 81 per cent. of all first year Canadian students in vocabulary. The upper and lower quartiles are those points above and below which 25% of the pupils are found. Thus in the first year vocabulary 25% of all first year pupils exceed 18.8, the upper quartile, while 25% do not reach 9.9, the lower quartile. The remaining 50% are found between the two quartiles. That is to say, 50% of first year pupils make a vocabulary score between 9.9 and 18.8. The difference between 9.9 and 18.8, that is 8.9 test units, is known as the interquartile range. In figures 1 to 8 the shaded portion represents the interquartile range which is used to show the overlapping of the most homogeneous part of the classes, the part least affected by extremes.

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Vocabulary

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$4\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
73-75			2	98.9			2	99.7		
70-72			2	98.8			3	99.2		
67-69			2	98.7	1	99			1	99
64-66			1	98.6					3	98
61-63			2	98.5					4	96
58-60			1	98.4	3	99	7	98	8	93
55-57							4	97	17	86
52-54			2	98.4	1	98	14	95	23	77
49-51			3	98	5	98	21	92	28	64
46-48			2	97.9	5	98	36	87	30	49
43-45	1	99.2	3	97.8	19	97	34	81	36	32
40-42	1	99.1	6	97.5	38	94	61	72	21	15
37-39			8	97	67	90	79	59	15	6
34-36	1	99	15	96	90	83	75	44	8	3
31-33			49	94	133	73	56	33	1	1
28-30	2	99	126	88	182	60	56	22		
25-27	24	97	169	78	191	43	40	14		
22-24	73	92	281	63	162	28	25	8		
19-21	119	81	273	45	120	16	12	4		
16-18	156	66	219	28	67	8	9	2		
13-15	145	50	140	16	39	3	3	1		
10-12	156	33	102	8	11	0.8	4	0.7		
7-9	134	17	53	3	4	0.2	1	0.2		
4-6	66	6	17	0.6						
1-3	25	1	1	0.3	1	0.4	1	0.1		
No. of cases	903		1479		1139		543		195	
Upper Quartiles	18.8		25.3		32.6		42.2		52.8	
Median	14.4		19.4		25.3		34.3		46.0	
Lower Quartiles	9.9		16.6		19.7		30.1		43.2	
Norms	14		19		25		34		46	

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Grammar

Score	½ yr.		1½ yrs.		2½ yrs.		3½ yrs.		4½ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
49-50										
47-48							2	99.4		
45-46					1	99.8	1	99	5	98
43-44							13	98	4	97
41-42					2	99.7	9	96	8	94
39-40			2	99.8	4	99.4	16	94	10	88
37-38			3	99.6	9	98	19	90	13	83
35-36	2	99.4	4	99.4	8	98	18	87	21	73
33-34			2	99	12	97	26	83	13	65
31-32			8	99	14	96	27	78	28	56
29-30			9	98	21	94	31	73	11	47
27-28			7	98	33	92	40	66	27	38
25-26			17	97	50	88	39	60	16	25
23-24	1	99	14	96	65	82	49	52	10	19
21-22			19	95	45	77	36	44	12	15
19-20	1	99	30	93	73	72	44	37	9	10
17-18	1	99	49	91	72	65	52	28	5	7
15-16	3	99	52	87	94	57	30	21	6	4
13-14	16	98	91	83	107	47	27	16	0	
11-12	25	96	144	75	105	37	26	11	5	1
9-10	82	90	205	64	104	27	22	7		
7-8	126	79	304	47	93	18	17	3		
5-6	244	59	310	27	71	10	8	1		
3-4	287	31	201	10	53	4	1	0.1		
1-2	142	8	58	2	17	0.8				
No. of cases	930		1530		1053		553		203	
Upper Quartiles	7.3		11.7		21.2		29.7		35.9	
Median	5.2		8.2		14.5		23.4		30.9	
Lower Quartiles	3.5		5.7		9.5		17.2		26.4	
Norms	5		8		14		23		31	

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Silent Reading

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$4\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
28										
27									1	99
26					1	99.7	1	99.7	1	98
25									4	97
24							4	99.2	6	95
23					1	99.6	3	98	7	92
22					4	99.4	12	97	16	86
21	1	99	1	99.9	2	99	5	96	13	78
20			2	99.7	9	98	20	93	19	70
19	1	99	2	99.6	10	97	24	89	23	59
18	1	98	2	99.4	16	96	32	83	21	48
17	1	98	5	99.2	20	95	28	78	13	39
16	1	98	5	99	24	92	43	71	15	32
15			6	98	41	89	43	63	16	24
14			7	98	55	85	52	53	12	17
13			16	97	68	78	49	44	12	11
12	1	98	27	96	68	72	49	34	7	6
11			29	94	87	64	36	33	4	3
10	2	98	54	91	106	55	34	19	2	2
9			78	86	94	45	18	14	1	1
8	14	97	99	80	94	36	19	11		
7	23	95	147	71	81	37	16	8	1	0.7
6	35	92	188	59	66	20	21	4		
5	62	86	200	45	68	13	6	1.5	1	0.2
4	90	77	171	31	55	7	2	0.7		
3	146	63	181	19	25	3	3	0.2		
2	145	48	118	8	16	2				
1	318	19	52	2	8	0.3				
No. of cases	841		1390		1019		320		195	
Upper Quartiles	4.1		7.8		12.8		16.9		20.9	
Median	2.7		5.8		9.2		14.0		18.5	
Lower Quartiles	1.6		5.4		7.1		12.2		15.4	
Norms	3		6		9		14		19	

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Composition

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$4\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
17										
16										
15							1	99.8	4	99
14	1	99.9	1	99.8	2	99.8	7	99.2	8	96
13			2	99.7	12	99.3	18	97	27	89
12			3	99.6	11	98.4	16	94	30	76
11	1	99.8	5	99.3	26	97	50	88	41	61
10	7	99.5	31	98	102	91	132	72	54	40
9	12	99	89	94	119	82	107	50	32	21
8	83	95	277	82	231	68	83	33	11	12
7	186	83	252	65	237	49	70	20	14	7
6	335	61	499	40	369	23	44	10	6	3
5	263	35	243	15	64	5	20	4	0	
4	150	18	62	5	19	2	4	2	2	1
3	48	10	9	3	3	1	1	1	0	
2	43	6	13	2	4	0.7	1	1	1	0.2
0	53	2	25	0.8	7	0.2	6	0.5	0	
No. of cases	1182		1512		1206		558		20	
Upper Quartiles	6.5		7.6		8.4		10.1		11.9	
Median	5.6		6.3		7.1		9.0		10.4	
Lower Quartiles	4.5		4.5		6.1		7.4		9.2	
Norms	6		6		7		9		10	

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS*Vocabulary*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
97-99								
94-96					1	99.5		
91-93					3	98		
88-90			1	99.7	3	96		
85-87			1	99.4	1	94	3	94
82-84			1	99	1	93	2	85
79-81					0		0	
76-78	2	99.6	1	98	2	92	3	76
73-75	1	99.2			1	91	1	68
70-72	2	99	1	98	2	90	0	
67-69	1	98	1	98	2	89	2	62
64-66	2	98	1	98	3	87	1	57
61-63	5	97	1	97	4	85	1	53
58-60	2	96	2	97	1	83	0	
55-57	0		3	96	2	82	1	49
52-54	4	95	2	95	4	80	1	46
49-51	7	93	2	94	6	77	1	42
46-48	1	93	7	93	11	71	1	38
43-45	1	92	19	88	9	64	5	27
40-42	1	92	15	83	10	57	3	12
37-39	6	91	18	77	7	51	2	4
34-36	5	89	18	71	13	44		
31-33	8	88	18	65	12	36		
28-30	16	85	23	58	12	27		
25-27	24	79	23	51	9	20		
22-24	34	72	43	40	8	14		
19-21	51	60	37	27	5	10		
16-18	40	48	26	16	5	6		
13-15	51	36	15	9	4	3		
10-12	26	26	10	5	0			
7-9	45	17	9	2	1	1		
4-6	35	6	3	0.4	1	0.9		
1-3	7	0.9			1	0.3		
No. of cases	377		301		144		27	
Upper Quartiles	24.4		37.1		48.9		77.2	
Median	17.8		26.0		37.4		55.5	
Lower Quartiles	10.8		20.0		28.5		40.4	
Norms	18		26		37		56	

TABLE 6

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Grammar

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
49-50								
47-48								
45-46								
43-44					1	99.5	1	98
41-42			1	99.5	1	98	3	90
39-40					3	97	2	82
37-38	3	99	3	99	4	95	3	73
35-36	2	98	6	97	7	91	4	60
33-34	3	97	5	96	9	86	3	48
31-32	6	96	11	93	9	80	2	39
29-30	8	94	19	89	14	73	2	32
27-28	14	91	25	83	16	63	4	21
25-26	13	87	24	76	17	52	1	12
23-24	15	83	36	67	18	41	2	7
21-22	18	78	38	57	11	31	1	2
19-20	24	72	39	46	13	23		
17-18	36	63	41	34	8	17		
15-16	38	53	26	25	8	17		
13-14	43	41	25	18	3	8		
11-12	41	29	25	10	2	6		
9-10	27	19	18	4	4	4		
7-8	25	11	4	1	2	2		
5-6	14	6	4	0.5	2	1		
3-4	11	2						
1-2	3	0.4			1	0.3		
No. of cases	344		350		153		28	
Upper Quartiles	20.7		25.5		29.3		38.3	
Median	15.4		20.6		25.5		34.3	
Lower Quartiles	11.3		15.9		19.9		28.5	
Norms	15		20		26		34	

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Silent Reading

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
39-40								
37-38								
35-36							1	97
33-34							2	91
31-32								
29-30			1	99.5	1	99		
27-28			3	99			1	85
25-26			4	98	4	97	2	79
23-24	2	99	3	96	7	93	3	68
21-22	6	98	10	94	11	87	3	56
19-20	3	96	13	91	20	77	6	37
17-18	10	94	22	86	23	63	1	22
15-16	16	90	34	77	13	51	1	18
13-14	15	86	30	67	18	40	1	14
11-12	8	82	42	56	12	30		
9-10	25	77	31	45	16	21	1	10
7-8	34	68	40	29	8	13		
5-6	35	58	30	23	5	9	1	6
3-4	39	47	18	16	5	6		
1-2	136	20	45	6	7	2	1	2
No. of cases	329		326		150		24	
Upper Quartiles	9.2		15.5		19.5		24.9	
Median	4.5		10.9		15.6		20.9	
Lower Quartiles	1.3		6.2		10.6		18.9	
Norms	5		11		16		21	

TABLE 8

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS ADMINISTERED IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Composition

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
16								
15								
14			2	99.4	2	99		
13	1	99	1	99	1	97		
12	3	99	2	98	3	96	1	98
11	3	98	6	97	1	94	3	90
10	1	97	9	94	4	92	6	74
9	4	96	13	91	5	89	3	57
8	17	93	38	83	12	82	6	40
7	21	88	37	72	25	67	4	22
6	50	78	63	57	24	47	2	11
5	102	56	79	35	25	27	2	4
4	89	28	50	16	16	11		
3	52	8	25	5	5	3		
2								
1			1	0.7				
0	2	0.2	2	0.3	1	0.4		
No. of cases	345		328		124		27	
Upper Quartile	6.3		7.7		7.9		10.5	
Median	5.3		6.1		6.6		8.9	
Lower Quartile	3.4		5.0		5.4		7.7	
Norms	5		6		7		9	

The Spanish tests were administered to 434 students. Because of the small number of cases the distributions, quartiles, and percentile ranks are not given, but merely the medians and the number of cases reported. Table 9 gives these data:

TABLE 9
SPANISH TESTS

Years	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$
<i>Vocabulary</i>				
Medians.....	35.6	42.5	57.3	67.5
Number of cases.....	96	64	25	2
<i>Grammar</i>				
Medians.....	13.6	22.6	30.5	39
Number of cases.....	48	63	24	2
<i>Silent Reading</i>				
Medians.....	8	14	19.5	27.5
Number of cases.....	48	48	12	2
<i>Free Composition</i>				
Medians.....	4.3	5.3	6.5	7.5
Number of cases.....	27	36	9	2

While the number of cases is too limited to regard these medians as norms, it may be noted that they approximate closely the norms established for the United States from a very wide administration.

INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS AND THE OVERLAPPING OF CLASSES

An examination of the tables for the French and German tests shows the wide range of individual differences and the overlapping of classes. Figures 1 to 8 show graphically the range of scores at each level, the medians, the upper and lower quartiles, and the curve of growth from year to year.

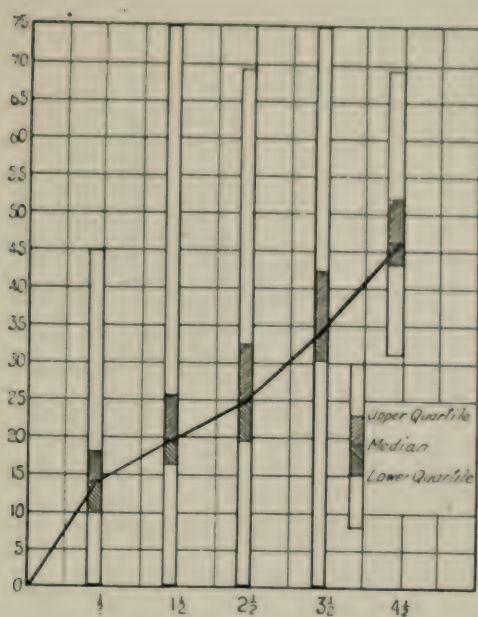


Fig. 1—French Vocabulary.—Canada.

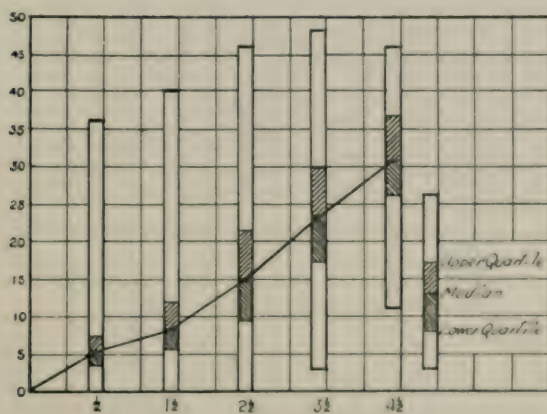


Fig. 2.—French Grammar.—Canada.

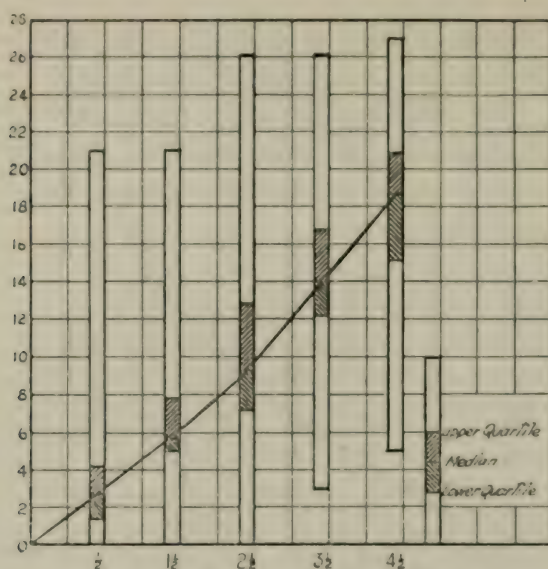


Fig. 3.—French Silent Reading.—Canada.

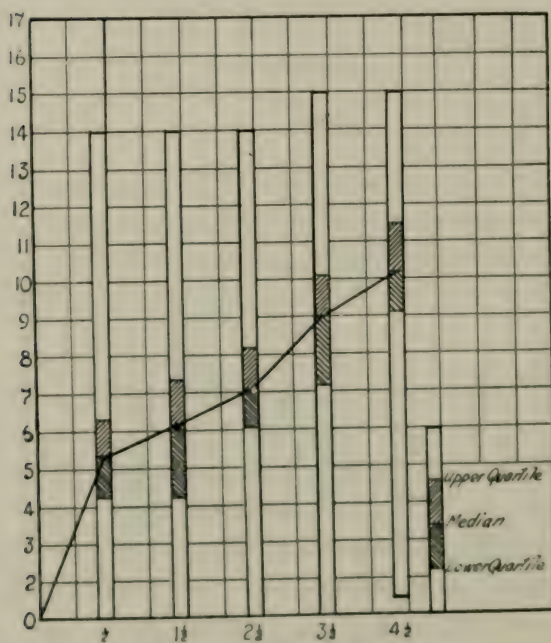


Fig. 4.—French Composition.—Canada.

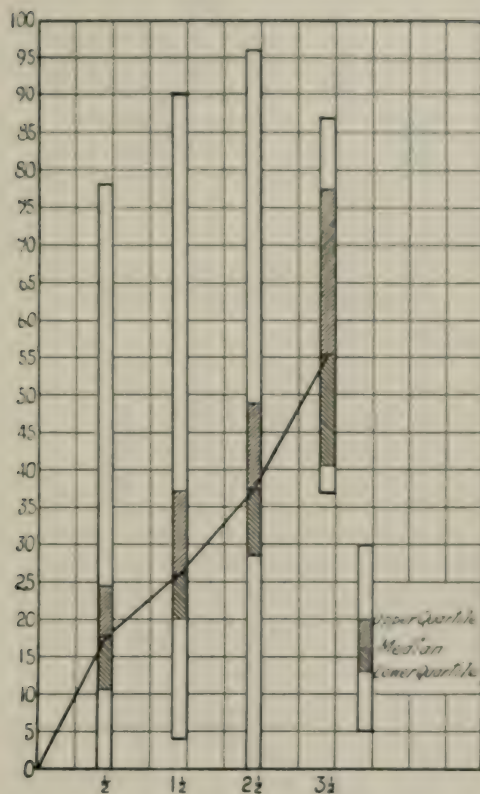


Fig. 5.—German Vocabulary.—Canada.

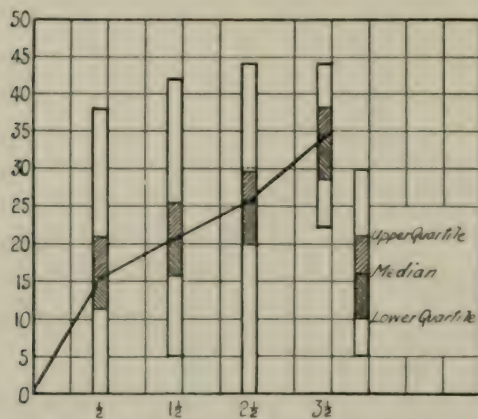


Fig. 6.—German Grammar.—Canada.

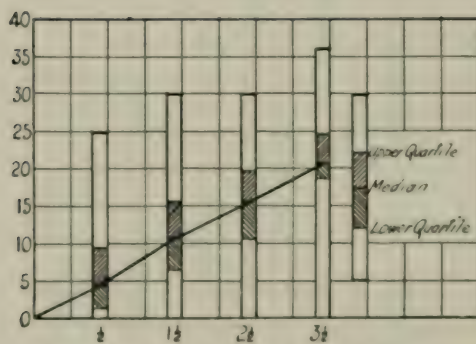


Fig. 7.—German Silent Reading.—Canada.

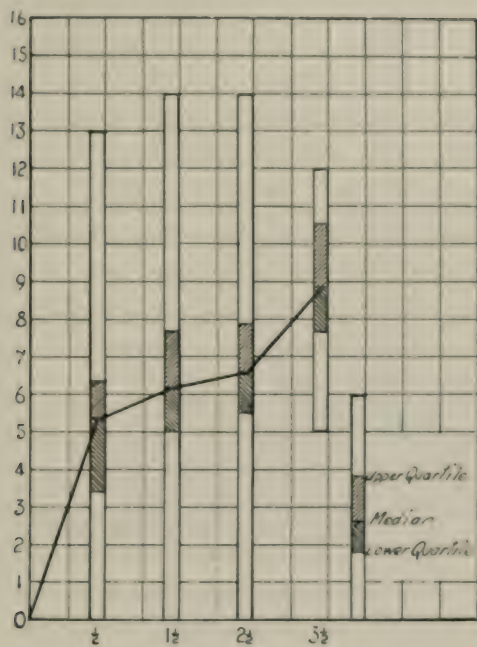


Fig. 8.—German Composition.—Canada.

An examination of the figures shows vividly the overlapping of the groups, so great indeed that practically the entire range of possible scores is covered at each level except the first and the last. A glance at the inter-quartile range, which covers the middle fifty per cent. of cases, shows even more convincingly (since this range is not affected by very low or high scores which may occur by chance) the lack of accuracy in placement shown by all the tests. The upper quartile line almost coincides with the median line of the next group above, and the lower quartile line almost coincides with the median of the next group below. In other words, a rough inspection would indicate that in the first three levels approximately twenty-five per cent. of students are, in achievement (a year or more) above the level at which they are placed, while another twenty-five per cent. are classified a year or more above the level at which objective tests place them. The total situation is not so bad as this when account is taken of the $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{2}$ year levels. There is evident in the curve of progress or growth a marked rise in the slope of the curve in both French and German tests, indicative of a more rigorous selection and elimination at the end of the third year, or of the fact that the schools on which the norms are based represent a more selected group.

The amount of overlapping is more accurately indicated by table 10, which shows the percentage of cases at each level reaching or exceeding the median of the next group above, and the percentage of cases failing to reach the median of the class below. This is shown for the French tests only.

TABLE 10

Showing in the upper line the per cent of each year group reaching or exceeding the median of the next year above, in the second line the per cent failing to reach the median of the next group below, and in the third line the total per cent. misplaced.

FRENCH TESTS					
Years	$\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{4}$
Vocabulary—% above	22	28	30	16	
% below		26	12	11	2
Total—% misplaced	22	54	42	27	2
Grammar—% above	19	16	19	24	
% below		19	18	17	19
Total—% misplaced	19	35	37	41	19
Silent Reading % above	11	16	18	26	
% below		9	15	22	14
Total—% misplaced	11	25	33	48	14
Free Composition % above ..	30	33	17	26	
% below ..		26	32	21	22
Total—% misplaced	30	59	49	47	22

These figures show that the following percentages of pupils in Canadian high schools are misplaced by one year, that is, on the basis of objective tests they should be one year behind or one year ahead of their present classification.

TABLE 10(a).

	Pupils misplaced	Total	Percentage
Vocabulary	1727	4259	38
Grammar	1368	4269	32
Silent Reading	938	3765	25
Free Composition	2151	4688	46
Estimated average			36

These figures for overlapping for a whole year show an even greater heterogeneity than is revealed by an analysis of data from the high schools of the United States, where 50% of the pupils are misplaced by at least one semester and 26% by at least one year. The Canadian figures show that 36% are misplaced by one year.

If the sole result of the committee's language tests had been to reveal the extent of this misplacement they would have justified themselves. A reclassification on the basis of objective tests would make for greater homogeneity and would inevitably lead to an improvement in instruction. It is noticeable that the numbers and percentages of those who are above the level at which they are classified are higher than those who are below the level of their classification. This is more evident in the results obtained from Canadian high schools than in those from the United States. This shows clearly that while many students are promoted and carried beyond their depth with probably little capacity for modern languages and small achievement, there are still larger numbers of brilliant students who are given no chance to display their full ability. The inevitable result is discouragement and discontent, and a withdrawal from the subject at the first opportunity.

As long as achievement is measured in terms of time spent, on the basis of personal estimates or on the basis of hastily constructed examinations, we shall continue to have misclassification and poorer results than could be achieved under more favourable conditions.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

To facilitate comparisons and to discover any differences that may exist in the various parts of the Dominion, norms have been established separately for (1) Ontario, (2) the Western provinces, and (3) the Eastern provinces exclusive of Ontario and Quebec.

Table II gives the Canadian norms and the median score for the three regions. The figures in parentheses indicate the number of cases.

TABLE 11

<i>Vocabulary</i>					
Years	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Canada.....	14	19	25	34	46
Ontario.....	11.5(57)	22(712)	28(402)	39(266)	47(179)
The West.....	14.5(737)	21(553)	26(512)	35(199)	
The East.....	10.5(116)	21.5(277)	32.5(139)	34.5(16)	44.5(16)
<i>Grammar</i>					
Canada.....	5	8	14	23	31
Ontario.....	4(88)	7(708)	13.5(431)	22.5(328)	31(184)
The West.....	5(741)	8(531)	15(492)	24(206)	
The East.....	3.5(109)	9(269)	14.5(136)	13.5(16)	27(15)
<i>Silent Reading</i>					
Canada.....	3	6	9	14	19
Ontario.....	1(64)	4.5(663)	9.5(395)	13.5(299)	18.5(181)
The West.....	2(666)	5.5(530)	9(495)	14(208)	
The East.....	3(109)	7(259)	12(133)	16.5(16)	17(14)
<i>Free Composition</i>					
Canada.....	6	6	7	9	10
Ontario.....	6.4(84)	6.7(720)	7.6(497)	10.5(229)	11(183)
The West.....	6.2(609)	6.7(603)	6.9(259)	9.1(190)	
The East.....	3.7(105)	6.1(92)	6.3(68)	6.5(33)	8.5(16)

Apart from some minor fluctuations, such as the higher scores in the West at the half-year level and the noticeably higher scores in reading at the first three levels in the East, there appear to be no notable regional differences in achievement so far as they are revealed by the tests. The medians for $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{2}$ year classes in the East are, of course, based on too small a number of cases to have any significance, but since they are available they have been reported.

SCHOOL AND CLASS VARIATION

Another striking fact that becomes apparent from the administration of standard tests is the remarkable variation in achievement found in different schools and classes.

TABLE 12
SHOWING CLASS MEDIANS FOR INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

[illegible]

Table 12 gives the class medians in each of the committee's French tests for 83 classes distributed among 26 representative schools. To simplify the table the numbers of pupils for each class have been omitted. Similar data are not given for German and Spanish tests because the small number of cases in individual classes makes the results less significant. An examination of the overlapping in German classes as shown in figures 5 to 8 would not lead one to believe that the situation differs materially from that found in the French classes.

The meaning of this table becomes clearer when we examine figures 9 to 12, which show for each test the distribution of class medians for high schools with reference to the Canadian norms. These figures are easily read. The point where the vertical year-line crosses the curve represents the norm, and dots represent the class medians.

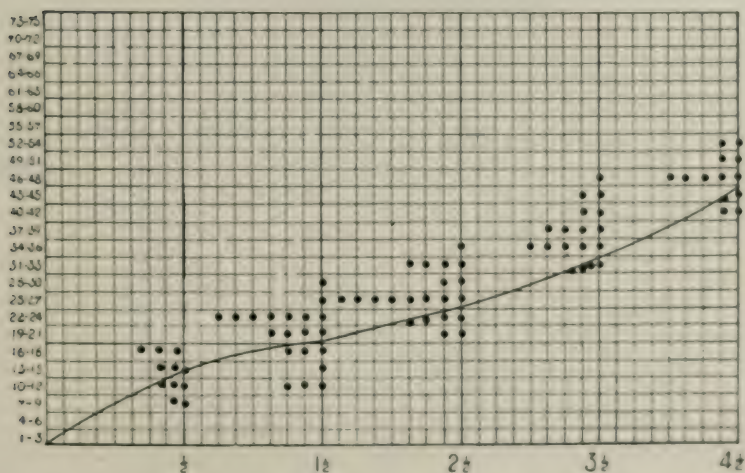


Fig. 9.—Variations in class medians in different schools in French Vocabulary—Canada. Dots represent class medians; a line, norms.

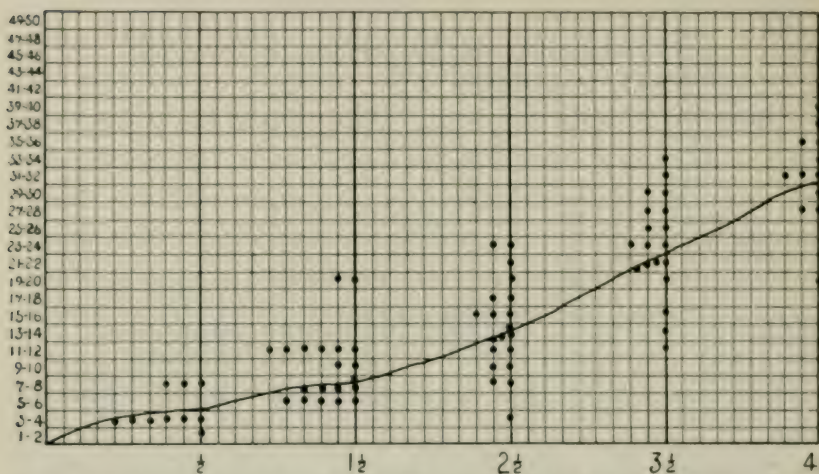


Fig. 10.—Variations in class medians in different schools in French Grammar.—Canada.

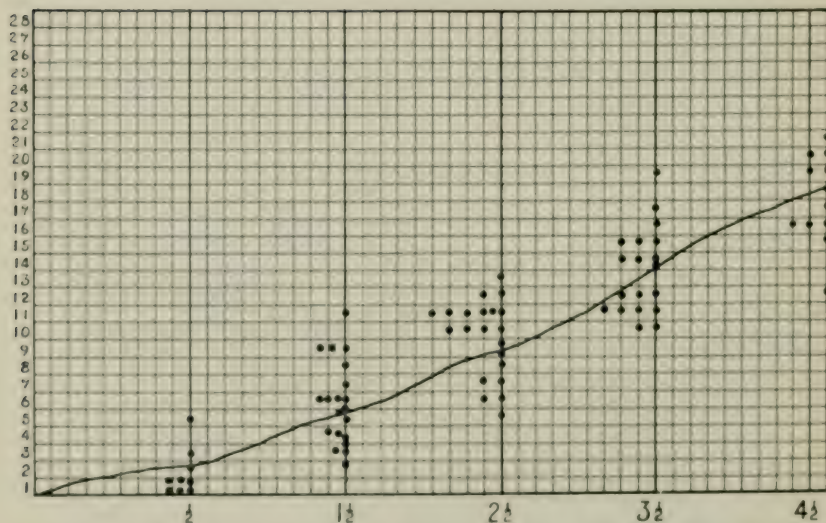


Fig. 11.—Variations in class medians in different schools in French Silent Reading.—Canada.

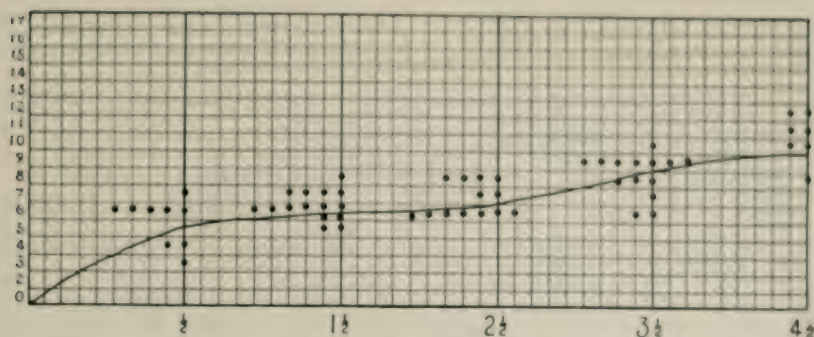


Fig. 12.—Variations in class medians in different schools in French Composition—Canada

These figures are startling. Accustomed as we are to wide individual differences, we are hardly prepared for the class differences revealed by these figures. In French vocabulary at the $\frac{1}{2}$ year level we find class medians ranging from 8.5 to 17.3, at the $1\frac{1}{2}$ year from 10.8 to 28.8, at the $2\frac{1}{2}$ year from 21.1 to 34, at the $3\frac{1}{2}$ year from 31.2 to 47.5, and at the $4\frac{1}{2}$ year from 41.8 to 52. In other words, some classes are doing in the same period double the work of other classes.

In addition, at the $1\frac{1}{2}$ year level we find two classes that exceed the norm for the $2\frac{1}{2}$ year level, and three classes that fail to reach the norm of the $\frac{1}{2}$ year level. Five classes out of twenty or 25% are misplaced by a whole year. The condition at the other levels is similar, and the other tests reveal total class misplacement equal to or greater than that made evident by the vocabulary test.

This problem of placement is of the greatest importance, the results of the present testing in Canadian schools showing the dire need of some objective criterion by which uniformity of standards can be obtained. Under present conditions it is quite clear that two years of French in one high school is quite a different matter

from two years in another. It has always been known that differences between schools and classes exist, but it is certain that no one suspected that the differences are as great as the tests show them to be.

The service that a standard examination or test can render is obvious. Such tests administered from time to time provide the most effective stimulus to improvement both for the teacher and the pupil. Without such criteria pupils and teachers are in the same position as a golf player who plays a strange course without a score card. What a revelation when he later compares his game with par! What a revelation when a teacher finds his best class below the national norms!

Such tests should likewise stimulate enquiry into the causes of the differences revealed. When a teacher discovers by means of an objective test that his class requires two years to accomplish what some other classes are doing in one he is prompted to search for the cause. Improvement in the selection of pupils, improvement in curricula and method, and improvement in teaching will almost inevitably follow. The first step must be the measurement in comparable terms of class achievement.

RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND

After the completion of the testing of February, 1926, in Canadian high schools, it was decided that the Canadian committee should undertake an extensive administration of tests in the secondary schools of England. It was felt that the results would be valuable for comparing achievement in schools where different objectives, curricula, methods and conditions of instruction prevail. It was decided to restrict the testing to French since the large classes available in this language would give a reliable basis of comparison.

Negotiations¹ were carried on with the English schools during the latter part of 1926; and in February, 1927, French tests were administered to over 6,000 pupils. It was found impossible to have all these tests administered on the same date and there is therefore a variation of about four weeks in the time of testing. As the tests were evenly distributed over this period it is not felt that this variation interferes with the reliability of the results.

¹The administration of tests in English schools was greatly facilitated by the efforts of Mr. E. G. Savage, one of His Majesty's inspectors of secondary schools, and Mr. A. R. Ainsworth of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports, Board of Education, Whitehall. These gentlemen, by their counsel in drafting the plan of organization and by explaining to teachers in England the aims of the committee, made it possible to secure the co-operation of a representative group of schools and educational authorities. Mr. W. Ogle of Trinity College School, Port Hope, enlisted the interest of several Scottish schools, two of which administered tests. The results from these two schools are included with the English schools.

The majority of the pupils examined in this testing belong to what are known as the grant-aided schools. These are secondary schools which, under condition of maintaining a certain standard of efficiency and giving free tuition up to twenty-five per cent. of their enrolment to scholars appointed by the board of education, are assisted by grants of public money. They may be in the first place municipal or county or grammar schools, but once they accept the grant they become subject to board of education inspection and are under contract to receive pupils from the publicly controlled elementary schools. Free secondary education in England is a privilege offered to those most likely to profit by it, not a right to be claimed by all who can pass out of the primary grades. By degrees it came to be appreciated that late entry into the secondary schools was a source of inefficiency. The solution was found in a rule fixing the age for scholarships and free places, with the result that fifty-four per cent. of the pupils now enter between the age of eleven and twelve. It is now generally recognized that if the work of a secondary school is to be effectively organized, pupils should not ordinarily be admitted after their twelfth birthday. So essential is this considered to be that local authorities are relieved of any obligation to admit fee-paying or free-placing pupils who have passed their twelfth birthday by the beginning of the school year in which they seek admission.

It is interesting also to observe that no school is recognized for the payment of grants under the regulations unless (1) the pupils normally remain at least four years at school, and (2) the school life of the pupils normally extends at least to the age of sixteen. Thus the majority of pupils enter the secondary school at the age of twelve, and their secondary school course terminates

at the age of sixteen, when they take their first or school certificate examination.

About ten years ago a new departure was made when advanced courses were organized for schools which were capable of taking up sixth form work. These courses were organized on the principle of specializing for two years in a group of allied subjects and lead to the second examination, taken at the age of eighteen, the certificate of which entitles the holder to obtain the degree of B.A. by the pass course in three years. It is customary, however, for such candidates to take their B.A. degree in one of the honour courses.

A regulation of the board of education provides that classes should not contain more than thirty pupils and must not contain more than thirty-five. "The school day is usually divided into seven periods of 40 or 45 minutes each. All time-tables must be sent to the board for approval at the beginning of the school year and no alteration of an approved time-table may be made without the consent of the board. While considerable latitude is permitted in the apportionment of time, the following time-table which was in operation in a mixed school I visited may be taken as representative of the general practice."¹

The hours for French in this time-table are as follows:

NUMBER OF PERIODS PER WEEK

1st yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.	6th yr.
5	5	5	6	8	8

German is not included in this programme except in the advanced courses, where it is given six periods a week for the two years.

¹Levan, I. M., *Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario*, 1926, p. 25.

In comparing the organization of the system with that of Canada one is struck by the fact that the English pupil begins his secondary school course at the age of twelve, whereas in Canada the average age for entering the high school is approximately fourteen, or two years later. The English pupil takes his first examination at the age of sixteen as against seventeen or eighteen in Canada, and his second examination at eighteen as against nineteen. Again a much more liberal provision is made in the matter of time for the English pupil.

One of the first essentials of a satisfactory school course in French or any modern language is that teachers should have a clear idea of objectives. While, in principle, these objectives should be common to all schools, their relative importance and the extent to which it is reasonable to expect their realization must continue to vary according to staffing conditions, to the length and age-range of school life and to the varying capacity of the classes. It was suggested in Circular 797¹ (1912) that pupils, who have pursued and completed under skilled instruction the full course of the main portion of the school, might fairly be expected:

(a) to understand, within a vocabulary of reasonable scope, clearly enunciated French speech;

(b) to use readily and correctly, within similar limits both the spoken and written language

(c) to read with ease and intelligence French prose and verse of ordinary difficulty, and to possess a first-hand acquaintance with some at least of the prose and verse masterpieces of the literature.

The experience of the years which have elapsed since the issue of the circular has disclosed no disposition on

¹Board of Education Educational Pamphlets, No. 47, *The Position of French in Grant-Aided Secondary Schools in England*, pp. 15-16.

the part of the teachers to dissent from this statement as representing the proper and reasonable aims of a four (or five) years' course begun at or about the age of twelve (or eleven). In §21 and §22 this same pamphlet states that written work should be kept within reasonable limits and expresses doubts of its value as an educational instrument. In §23 mention is made also of the recommendations made by the "modern language panel of investigators of the first examinations to the effect that the maximum marks for French should be so distributed over the several sections of the paper(s) that, given good work in translation, a candidate would not fail to pass because of mere inability to write French. Some of the examinations already so distribute the marks that this condition is fulfilled." The same panel of examiners deprecate consistently the setting of disconnected sentences for translation into French, not because of any objection to such sentences in themselves but rather because they consider them superfluous when added to an obligatory test in continuous composition.

In regard to method it is indicated in §39 of the pamphlet just cited that the teaching of the lowest classes is based on the spoken idiom. While advance in this direction is, not unnaturally, most marked in large centres, it is by no means limited to them as may be seen from a recent report on the work of a large and thinly populated county area where "the methods employed in the schools during the early stages of French are mainly oral and direct and generally suitable for the elementary instruction in a living language." The enquiry shows that the early teaching in some 87 per cent of the schools reported upon is wholly or in part of this type.

In regard to the selection and the amount of reading, a study of pamphlet 47 already cited would indicate that,

while many good schools are exceptions, there is a universal feeling among the teachers that very slender provision is made for the reading of continuous French texts and also that not infrequently the character of those read is exceedingly trivial.

An attempt has been made in the preceding paragraphs to give some idea of conditions, organization and objectives in the English schools where the tests were administered. We shall now proceed to a study of the results obtained from these tests.

RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE FRENCH TESTS IN THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS

The tests used were the same Canadian committee tests in French as were administered in the high schools of Canada and the United States. A special edition was prepared, however, with a slightly different first page, or questionnaire, and better adapted to the conditions prevailing in English schools. Approximately 30,000 tests were distributed, about equally divided between vocabulary, grammar, silent reading and free composition. These tests were returned to the office of the investigators where they were scored by the same staff that marked the tests from the Canadian schools.

Upon examining the results of the tests a question arose as to the method of classifying the results. Many classes in the first year contained pupils who had studied French in elementary schools from one to five years. As the majority of the pupils had not had preparatory French it was decided to make three distributions. The first and largest consists of those pupils who have had no preparatory French. The second distribution consists of those pupils who have studied French in preparatory

TABLE 13
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS, *No Prep.*

Vocabulary

Score	½ yr.		1½ yrs.		2½ yrs.		3½ yrs.		4½ yrs.		5½ yrs.		6½ yrs. or more	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
73-75					1	99	4	99	5	99	5	99	12	96
70-72					2	98.9	8	98.9	11	98	22	94	21	85
67-69	1	99.7			1	98.7	11	98.1	25	95	32	86	24	70
64-66					1	98.7	18	96	34	91	22	77	17	57
61-63	2	99.1			1	98.6	18	96	56	84	31	69	13	48
58-60					6	98.3	45	94	56	76	38	58	13	39
55-57					7	97.8	36	90	65	68	29	47	17	34
52-54			1	99.5	6	97.3	63	86	54	59	32	37	6	22
49-51					20	96	69	80	65	51	32	28	5	19
46-48			2	99.4	24	94	69	74	64	41	20	20	11	13
43-45	2	98	3	99.1	45	91	88	68	70	32	15	14	4	9
40-42			7	98	82	86	122	59	48	23	12	10	3	6
37-39			19	97	88	80	108	48	33	17	4	7	2	5
34-36	1	97.8	37	94	130	71	136	37	31	13	11	4	4	3
31-33	3	97	62	90	178	59	87	28	25	9	4	2	2	1
28-30	4	95	102	82	151	46	84	20	25	5	3	2	2	1
25-27	5	94	143	71	147	34	82	13	14	2	1	1	1	0.3
22-24	9	91	152	58	149	22	54	7	4	1	3	0.7		
19-21	14	87	166	43	101	13	35	4	6	0.6				
16-18	28	79	160	28	65	6	16	1	1	0.1	1	0.1		
13-15	44	66	127	15	33	2	11	0.7	1	0.05				
10-12	49	49	60	6	13	0.8	3	0.1						
7-9	41	33	31	2	3	0.2								
4-6	23	21	9	0.5	2	0.05								
1-3	25	12	2	0.05										
	22	4												
No. of cases	273		1083		1266		1159		693		317		155	
Upper Quartile	19.1		27.1		36.4		47.5		59.7		64.2		68.3	
Median	14.5		21.7		30.4		38.0		50.1		57.1		63.2	
Lower Quartile	7.8		16.7		24		32.6		42		49.4		54.1	
Norms	15		22		30		39		50		57		63	

TABLE 14
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS. *No Prep.*
Grammar

Score	½ yr.		1½ yrs.		2½ yrs.		3½ yrs.		4½ yrs.		5½ yrs.		6½ yrs. or more.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
49-50							2	99.7	5	99	3	99	2	98
47-48							5	99.4	19	97	12	96	7	96
45-46							18	98	25	94	18	91	13	89
43-44					2	99.4	25	96	28	90	18	86	18	79
41-42			3	99.2	3	99.2	27	94	40	86	25	79	18	68
39-40			4	98.9	4	98.9	44	91	59	79	30	70	18	57
37-38			7	98.5	7	98.5	54	87	57	71	29	60	15	46
35-36			14	97	14	97	54	82	48	63	20	53	13	38
33-34			19	96	19	96	56	78	51	56	22	46	13	29
31-32			32	94	32	94	59	72	48	49	27	38	6	23
29-30	1	99	32	91	32	91	60	68	49	43	22	30	7	19
27-28			44	88	44	88	60	62	43	36	20	24	4	16
25-26	4	98	67	83	67	83	61	57	38	30	13	18	4	13
23-24	3	97	55	78	55	78	75	52	46	25	13	14	5	11
21-22			18	94	75	73	82	45	32	19	12	10	4	8
19-20			33	92	82	66	74	38	25	15	7	7	5	5
17-18			36	89	95	59	89	31	24	12	7	5	3	2
15-16			56	85	102	51	76	24	21	9	5	3	1	1
13-14			86	78	108	42	62	18	14	6	4	18	1	0.9
11-12			92	70	110	33	55	13	14	4	3	0.7	1	0.3
9-10			134	60	120	23	52	9	15	2	3			
7-8			192	45	101	14	33	5	4	1	1			
5-6			204	27	69	7	30	3	6	0.5				
3-4			138	12	36	3	16	1	1	0.05				
1-2			64	2	23	0.9	6	0.2						
No. of cases	276		1095		1200		1175		712		311		158	
Upper Quartile	5.1		12.9		22.4		32.7		38.9		40.8		43.1	
Median	4.8		8.4		15.6		23.3		32		34.9		38.6	
Lower Quartile	1.4		5.7		10.2		16		23.9		28.2		30.5	
Norms	5		8		16		23		32		35		39	

TABLE 15

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS. *No Prep.**Silent Reading*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$4\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$5\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$6\frac{1}{2}$ yrs. or more	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
28							1	99.1			1	99.6	1	99.4
27							1	99			1	99.3		
26							2	98.9			1	99	2	98
25							3	98.7	5	99	2	98.5	6	95
24							6	98.3	7	98	10	96.6	4	92
23					1	99.3	15	97	11	97	9	93	7	88
22					4	99.1	20	95	32	91	17	89	15	81
21					4	98.8	26	93	45	85	26	82	13	71
20					11	98.1	42	90	44	78	34	64	15	61
19					10	97	46	86	57	71	30	54	16	51
18	2	99			35	93	57	82	64	62	23	46	10	42
17					36	90	69	76	66	53	44	35	9	35
16					56	86	86	69	73	43	15	26	11	29
15					62	81	92	54	56	33	11	22	11	21
14	1	98.8			92	75	78	46	41	26	18	17	6	15
13	1	98.4			92	67	84	39	24	15	12	7	8	10
12	2	97.9			103	59	67	32	24	11	5	5	4	5
11					87	50	67	26	19	8	3	3	3	3
10	1	97.3			78	43	67	20	21	5	6	2	2	1
9	2	95.9			80	36	58	15	9	3				
8	2	95.4			80	28	34	11	8	2				
7	1	95.4			98	21	36	18	6	1				
6	4	94			58	15	25	5	1	0.6				
5					122	47	21	3			2	1	1	0.3
4	5	92			115	35	26	1	4	0.2				
3	12	89			281	14								
2	28	86												
1	199	38												
No. of cases	260		960		1130		1115		682		318		146	
Upper Quartile	19	5.6	11.5		15.1		15.1		17.8		19.5		20.8	
Median	16	3.6	8.3		11.9		11.9		15.1		16.9		18.3	
Lower Quartile	13	1.8	3.9		7.2		7.2		12.2		14.1		14.9	
Norms	2		8		12		12		15		17		18	

TABLE 16

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS. *No Prep.*

Composition

Score	½ yr.		1½ yrs.		2½ yrs.		3½ yrs.		4½ yrs.		5½ yrs.		6½ yrs. or more	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
17							2	99.6	2	99.7	1	99	2	98
16					1	99.5	4	99.3	1	99.5	5	98	3	96
15					4	99.5	44	97	11	98	13	95	8	92
14					17	98	103	90	75	92	51	84	47	73
13					31	96	63	83	149	75	83	62	33	44
12					55	93	117	75	77	58	56	41	16	26
11					179	83	219	60	90	46	35	29	10	17
10					315	63	282	38	108	31	42	16	8	10
9					262	39	151	19	102	16	21	5	4	6
8					190	21	83	9	40	5	4	1	3	3
7					138	7	57	3	15	1	1	0.8	4	1
6					14	1	7	0.3	5	0.3	2	0.3		
5					6	0.6	7	0.3						
4					3	0.2	1	0.04						
3					1	0.2	1	0.09						
2					1	0.1	1	0.04						
0														
No. of cases.....	248		1040		1217		1133		675		294		138	
Upper Quartile.....	7.3		9.3		9.9		11.4		13.5		13.9		14.5	
Median.....	6.1		8.2		8.9		9.9		11.7		13.07		13.7	
Lower Quartile.....	4.9		6.9		7.7		8.8		10.6		11.1		13.2	
Norms.....	6		8		9		10		12		13		14	

school for one or two years. The third contains pupils who have had three or more years of preparatory French.

The first group contains sufficient cases to make the results reliable, and is used where comparisons are made with results obtained from Canada and the United States, since these countries include no students who have had preparatory school French. Percentile ranks are given also for the first group, but not for the second and third because of the smaller number of cases. Tables 13 to 16 show as in the case of the Canadian high schools the distribution of scores, the medians, the upper and lower quartiles, the percentile ranks, and the number of cases for six years of secondary school French in England. As the tests were given at mid-year the norms are for $\frac{1}{2}$ yr., $1\frac{1}{2}$ yr., etc., *i.e.*, the middle of the first year, second year, etc.

INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS AND THE OVERLAPPING OF CLASSES

An examination of the tables for these tests shows the wide range of individual differences and the overlapping of classes already commented on in the case of the Canadian schools.

Figures 13 to 16 show graphically the range of scores at each level, the medians, the upper and lower quartiles, and the curve of growth from year to year.

An examination of these figures shows even more vividly than the tables the overlapping of the groups. This is so great that practically the entire range of possible scores is covered at each level except the first and the last. A glance at the interquartile range which includes the middle fifty per cent. of the cases reveals even more clearly the lack of accuracy in placement,

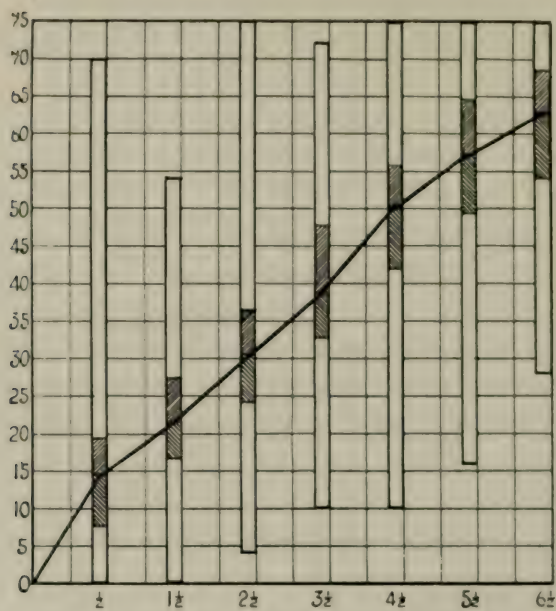


Fig. 13.—French Vocabulary.—England.

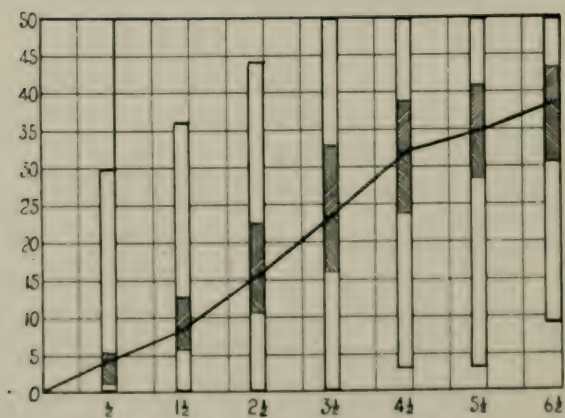


Fig. 14.—French Grammar.—England.

TESTS IN ENGLAND

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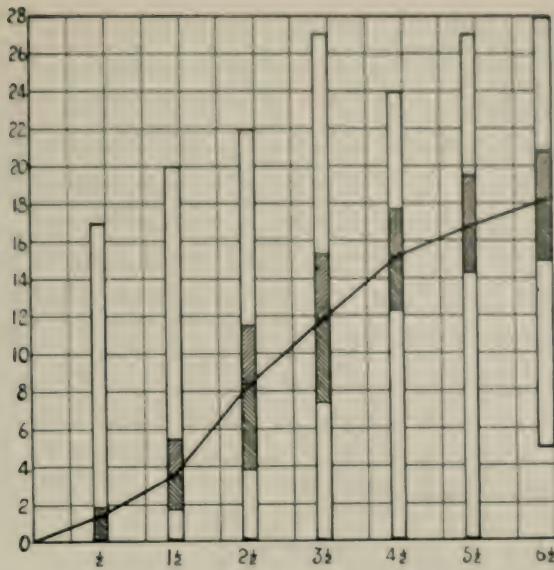


Fig. 15.—French Silent Reading.—England.

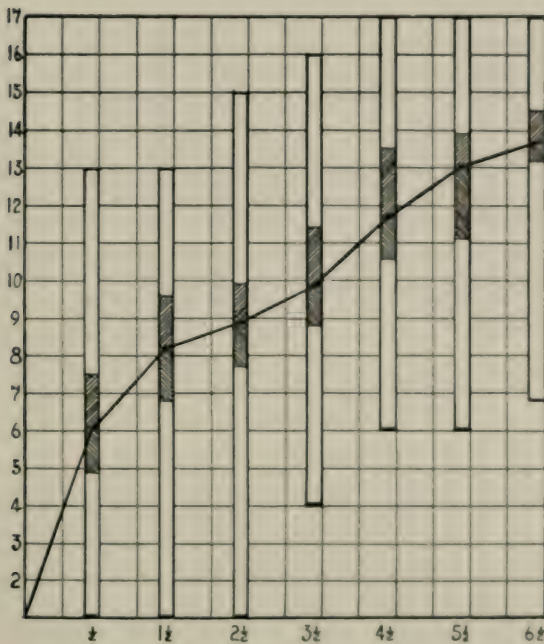


Fig. 16.—French Composition.—England.

since the interquartile range is not affected by very low or very high scores. The upper quartile line almost coincides with the median line of the next higher level and the lower quartile line with the median line of the next lower level. In other words, approximately twenty-five per cent. of the pupils are, in achievement, above the level at which they are classified by a year or more, and another twenty-five per cent. are a year or more below.

The amount of overlapping is more accurately indicated in table 17, which shows the percentage of cases at each level reaching or exceeding the median of the next group above and the percentage of cases failing to reach the median of the class below.

TABLE 17

Showing in the upper line the per cent. of each year group reaching or exceeding the median of the next year above and in the lower line the per cent. failing to reach the median of the next group below.

Years.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Vocabulary—% above	16	13	18	19	29	28	
% below		15	16	23	18	27	32
Total—% misplaced	16	28	34	42	47	55	32
Grammar—% above	17	15	22	26	39	35	
% below		17	17	24	23	39	34
Total—% misplaced	17	32	39	50	62	79	34
Silent Reading—% above	10	16	21	25	32	36	
% below		17	16	26	24	30	39
Total—% misplaced	10	33	37	51	56	66	39
Free Composition—% above	9	30	24	21	32	29	
% below		8	33	26	24	32	35
Total—% misplaced	9	38	57	47	56	61	35

The concrete application of these figures shows us that the following percentages of pupils in English high schools are misplaced, being in a class either one year ahead or one year behind their proper position as indicated by objective tests.

TABLE 17(a)

	Pupils misplaced	Total	Percentage
Vocabulary.....	1827	4946	37
Grammar.....	2185	4927	44
Silent Reading.....	1975	4611	43
Free Composition.....	2254	4142	48
Estimated average misplacement.....			44

The figures given in table 17 are felt to be somewhat misleading owing to the method by which pupils in the English schools are classified. The basis of classification was the actual number of years that the pupil had received instruction in French, and not the school year in which he was placed. As many pupils, because of high achievement, have been advanced in school classification, one or even two years, the reduction in grade caused by classifying them according to time spent on the language has tended to exaggerate the overlapping. In order to control the amount of this exaggeration a new distribution was made for 45 schools where it was possible to distribute the scores according to the school classification without reference to the actual number of years of instruction. In this distribution no distinction was made between those pupils with preparatory French and those who began French in the secondary schools. It was not found possible to carry this distribution beyond the fifth year as the number of cases at the upper levels was too small to produce reliable results.

Table 18 shows the results of this new distribution.

TABLE 18

Showing in the upper line the per cent. of each year group, on the basis of the school classification, reaching or exceeding the median of the next year group above and in the lower line the per cent. failing to reach the median of the next group below.

Years.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Vocabulary—% above.....	14	13	23	21	
% below.....		11	17	27	19
Total—% misplaced.....	14	24	40	48	19

		Pupils misplaced		Total	Percentage
Grammar—% above	14	13	28	23	
% below		16	12	22	24
Total—% misplaced	14	29	40	45	24
Silent Reading—% above . . .	5	17	27	25	
% below . . .		21	15	30	16
Total—% misplaced	5	38	42	55	16
Free Composition—% above	7	32	27	18	
% below		25	20	17	35
Total—% misplaced	7	57	47	35	35

These figures show us that the following percentages of pupils in these 45 schools are misplaced, being in a class one year ahead or one year behind the classification indicated by the results of objective tests.

TABLE 18(a)

Vocabulary	1134	3400	33
Grammar	1224	3549	35
Silent Reading	1217	3202	38
Free Composition	1379	3268	36
Estimated average for 45 schools			36

This distribution gives approximately the same medians as the other distributions. The result of the distribution of this control group of 45 schools shows that table 17 has exaggerated the amount of the overlapping, the control group giving 36% as against 44% for the original distribution. Table 18 undoubtedly gives a truer picture of conditions, as table 17 tends to nullify efforts made by the schools to combat the overlapping by advancing pupils of superior achievement.

The figures for overlapping should be compared with the results for Canada and the United States. In the case of the American schools, 50% of the pupils were shown to be misplaced by one semester and 26% by at least one year. In the Canadian schools 35% of the

pupils, and in the English schools 36% are misplaced by at least one year. As in the case of the Canadian and American schools, the percentage of those who are above the level at which they are classified is greater than those who are below. Thus, while many students are beyond their depth, and are unable to do the work of their class, there is a still larger group of brilliant students who are given no opportunity to display their abilities, with the result that they become bored with a type of work that requires insufficient intellectual effort.

COMPARISON OF PUPILS BEGINNING MODERN LANGUAGES AT DIFFERENT AGES

As has been stated, the results obtained in the English schools were classified in three groups: (*a*) Those who began French in the secondary school; (*b*) those who had completed one or two years of French before entering secondary school; (*c*) those who had completed three or more years of French before entering the secondary school. To facilitate comparison and to discover any differences that may exist, norms for the three groups are given in table 19. The figures in parentheses indicate the number of cases upon which the norms are based.

TABLE 19

<i>Vocabulary</i>						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7 or more
A 15(273)	22(1083)	30(1266)	39(1159)	50(693)	57(317)	63(155)
B 23(72)	26(143)	33(201)	46(142)	49(95)	55(57)	63(15)
C 37(44)	36(108)	42(158)	48(78)	51(49)	63(15)	()
<i>Grammar</i>						
A 5(276)	8(1095)	16(1200)	23(1175)	32(712)	35(311)	39(158)
B 8(76)	13(139)	21(180)	28(143)	33(90)	37(57)	42(15)
C 20(40)	23(112)	28(137)	31(80)	32(52)	36(10)	()

Silent Reading

A	2(260)	4(960)	8(1130)	12(1115)	15(682)	17(318)	18(146)
B	2(63)	5(131)	10(195)	14(126)	14(88)	18(54)	18(14)
C	10(39)	11(102)	13(124)	14(67)	17(48)	18(14)

Free Composition

A	6(248)	8(1040)	9(1217)	10(1133)	12(675)	13(294)	14(138)
B	8(77)	9(143)	10(214)	10(137)	12(86)	14(56)	14(15)
C	9(42)	10(111)	11(143)	11(71)	13(50)	14(13)

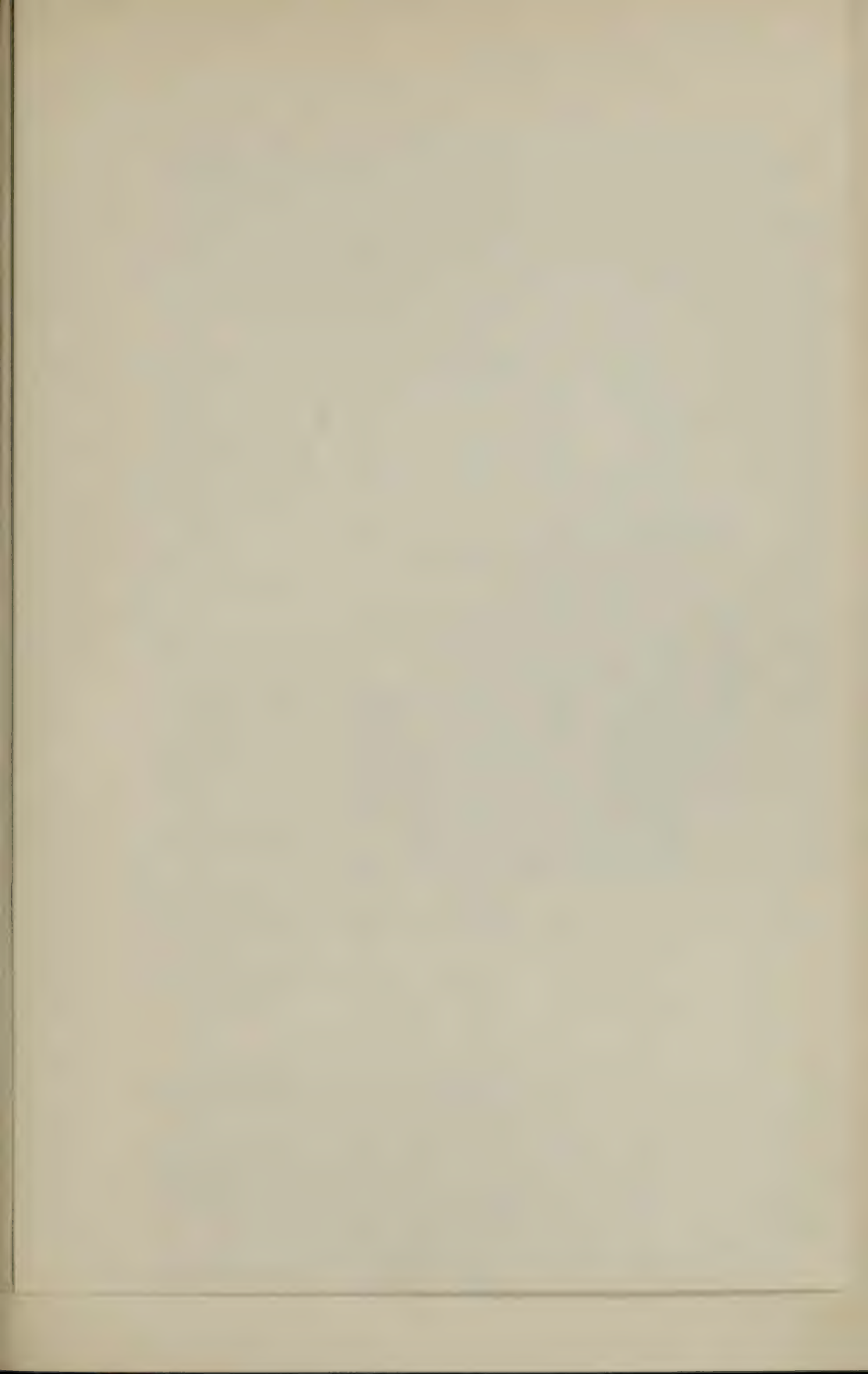
A comparison of these groups shows that groups B and C fail to hold the lead which they had over group A at the half-year period. At the five or six year period they are approximately equal. It must be remembered that the number of cases is too small in groups B and C at the six and seven year period to make the results absolutely reliable. Another factor that influences the validity of this comparison is that in most of these cases we find students from all three groups in the same classes. This has probably tended to raise slightly the norms of group A and to depress somewhat the norms of groups B and C.¹

SCHOOL AND CLASS VARIATION

A study of table 20 shows the enormous school and class variation found in the English school system. This table gives the individual class medians in the four tests.

Inasmuch as approximately 25% of the English schools have in their classes a certain proportion of pupils who have had preparatory French, one would naturally expect class variations to be enormous. An examination of the medians of those classes that have no pupils who have had preparatory French shows that the variation is approximately as great in the case of these classes as it

¹A further consideration of these figures will be found under the discussion of the proper age of beginning a modern language, Vol. I.





is in the case of the mixed classes. Thus there are eight classes out of sixty-four at the year and a half level whose vocabulary median exceeds the median of the two and a half year level. In grammar the same condition is found, eight classes at the one and a half year level exceeding the median of the two and a half year level. In free composition the variation is still greater, there being fourteen classes out of sixty-nine at the two and a half year level which exceed the norm of the three and a half year level. The same condition prevails at all of the levels for all of the tests.

These figures reveal in a most startling light the variation in standards and achievements in English schools. Every teacher is aware of the fact that enormous differences exist between individuals, and that class differences exist, but one would hardly have suspected the enormous class variations revealed by the tests. Here are found whole classes doing as much in one year as others do in two. The need of some objective criterion such as a standardized test is plain. A teacher may easily be satisfied with very mediocre results provided he does not realize that other teachers are far outstripping him. Once he is aware of this, however, he will no longer be content. The standardized test provides the objective criterion shown to be so much needed.

THE RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE MODERN LANGUAGE TESTS IN THE UNITED STATES

The language tests that were administered in Canada were also given a wide administration in the United States by the American committee.

The American committee assumed the responsibility for scoring the tests in order to insure uniformity and to establish accurate and representative norms. Schools were selected to include large, medium-sized, and small schools in the East, West, North, and South. While an earnest effort was made to make the sampling as representative as possible, it is probable that in the United States as in Canada the results contain a somewhat higher percentage of larger schools from the big centres.

In the American report the results are given by semesters, but as the unit in Canada is the year rather than the semester, this report gives the American norms for the mid-year testing.

A wide administration of language tests was also made in the colleges and universities of the United States covering thoroughly the first four semesters. These results are not included in this present section, but will be considered under the discussion of the proper age for beginning a modern language (Vol. I.).

Tables 21 to 32 give the results of the administration of the French, German and Spanish tests in the schools of the United States during the years 1926 and 1927. The tables give the distribution of scores, percentile ranks corresponding to given scores, medians, smoothed norms, and the number of cases on which they are based.

TABLE 21

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Vocabulary

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
73-75					1	99.9	1	99.8
70-72							5	99
67-69					3	99.6	6	98
64-66					1	99.3	8	96
61-63			1	99.9	3	99	14	93
58-60					13	98	19	89
55-57			2	99.7	12	95	24	83
52-54			2	99.5	18	93	24	78
49-51			5	99	38	89	29	72
46-48			9	98	39	83	31	64
43-45			17	96	57	76	44	56
40-42			23	94	79	81	53	43
37-39	2	99.8	51	89	71	54	55	30
34-36	5	99.4	64	82	68	90	33	19
31-33	7	99	94	72	76	29	37	11
28-30	17	97	101	58	50	20	16	4
25-27	36	94	114	46	43	13	6	1
22-24	89	86	103	32	29	07	3	0.7
19-21	120	74	109	17	17	4		
16-18	154	58	43	8	9	2		
13-15	143	40	23	4	2	1		
10-12	100	26	12	1	5	0.4		
7-9	73	15	4	0.3				
4-6	63	7						
1-3	27	2						
0	1	0.1						
No. of cases.....	837		777		656		408	
Upper Quartile.....	20.7		33.3		44.1		51.9	
Median.....	16.2		27.4		37.3		43.1	
Lower Quartile.....	11.3		22.1		31.4		37.4	
Norms.....	16		27		37		43	

TABLE 22

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS*Grammar*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
49-50					3	99.6	11	98
47-48					5	99	11	94
45-46			1	99.8	10	98	18	90
43-44			2	99.5	20	95	13	85
41-42			7	98	14	93	20	80
39-40			12	97	36	89	35	70
37-38			12	96	29	83	19	62
35-36			16	94	40	78	32	60
33-34			13	92	45	71	26	46
31-32			36	88	41	64	20	39
29-30			33	84	52	57	21	33
27-28			32	79	51	49	18	27
25-26	1	99.7	39	74	54	41	16	21
23-24	1	99.5	43	69	41	33	14	17
21-22			55	62	29	28	15	12
19-20	7	99	63	54	28	23	12	8
17-18	5	98	54	46	27	19	8	5
15-16	24	96	47	39	33	14	8	3
13-14	30	93	64	32	29	9	4	0.6
11-12	65	89	53	24	24	5		
9-10	122	76	48	17	11	2		
7-8	144	61	45	11	5	1		
5-6	196	41	32	5	4	0.3		
3-4	168	20	18	2				
1-2	75	6	6	0.4				
0	10	0.6						
No. of cases.....	848		731		631		321	
Upper Quartile.....	9.7		26.1		35.0		40.6	
Median.....	6.8		18.9		28.2		34.9	
Lower Quartile.....	4.5		12.3		20.7		27.4	
Norms.....	7		19		28		35	

TABLE 23

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

*High Schools**Silent Reading*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	F.R.
28								
27					1	99.9		
26							4	99
25			1	99.9	2	99.6	2	98
24					9	98.6	7	97
23			2	99.7	12	97	27	92
22			4	99	19	94	28	84
21			9	98	32	89	27	76
20			25	96	46	82	47	65
19	1	99.9	26	93	58	73	38	52
18	3	99.6	36	88	56	63	33	42
17	2	99.3	35	83	55	53	38	31
16	3	99	51	77	58	43	31	21
15	5	98	49	71	40	34	11	14
14	10	97	64	63	46	26	15	11
13	9	96	60	54	24	20	12	7
12	15	95	53	46	26	15	7	4
11	10	93	42	40	26	11	4	2
10	32	90	60	33	15	7	3	1
9	31	86	42	26	15	4	1	0.4
8	64	80	41	20	9	2	1	0.1
7	84	70	37	14	5	0.8		
6	102	58	27	10				
5	98	45	21	7				
4	102	32	19	4	2	0.2		
3	83	19	5	2				
2	48	11	4	1.6				
1	26	6	7	0.9				
0	32	2	3	0.2				
No. of cases.....	760		723		556		336	
Upper Quartile.....	7.9		16.2		19.7		21.4	
Median.....	5.9		13.0		17.2		19.3	
Lower Quartile.....	4.0		9.4		14.4		17.0	
Norms.....	6		13.0		17		19	

TABLE 24

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

*High School**Free Composition*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
17								
16								
15								
14								
13							3	99
12							6	97
11	1	99.8	4	99	14	98	14	91
10	10	99	22	96	45	89	28	78
9	65	92	60	84	103	68	75	47
8	75	79	75	64	70	43	18	19
7	70	66	37	47	48	26	17	9
6	80	52	76	31	38	14	4	2
5	84	37	40	13	12	6		
4	61	24	8	6	6	4		
3	48	9	7	4	4	2		
2	26	4	3	2	1	1	1	0.8
1								
0	28	2	7	1	5	1	1	0.3
No. of cases.....	548		339		346		167	
Upper Quartile.....	7.7		8.5		9.2		9.8	
Median.....	5.8		7.3		8.3		8.9	
Lower Quartile.....	4.1		5.8		6.9		8.5	
Norms.....	6		7		8		9	

TABLE 25

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Vocabulary

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
97-100						
93-96					1	99.8
89-92					1	99.4
85-88	1	99.9	1	99.9	2	99
81-84	1	99.7			2	98
77-80	2	99	3	99.4	1	97
73-76	2	99	2	99	1	97
69-72	8	97	3	98	7	95
65-68	6	95	1	98	7	93
61-64	9	93	9	96	8	90
57-60	10	90	5	95	11	86
53-56	12	87	3	94	18	80
49-52	8	84	15	92	23	72
45-48	4	82	17	88	23	63
41-44	8	80	27	82	20	54
37-40	11	77	39	74	29	44
33-36	10	74	39	65	18	35
29-32	30	69	55	54	15	28
25-28	32	59	59	40	22	21
21-24	29	50	45	27	27	11
17-20	52	39	43	16	10	4
13-16	42	25	23	8	4	1
9-12	34	14	20	3	1	0.2
5-8	20	6	2	0.5		
1-4	6	2	1	0.1		
0	3	0.4				
No. of cases.....	340		412		251	
Upper Quartile.....	35.8		39.3		57.5	
Median.....	22.8		29.9		40.9	
Lower Quartile.....	11.1		18.2		28.8	
Norm.....	23		30		42	

TABLE 26

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS*Grammar*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
49-50						
47-48						
45-46			1	99.9		
43-44						
41-42			1	99.6	3	99.4
39-40	1	99.8	1	99	8	97.3
37-38	1	99.5	5	99	5	95
35-36	3	99	8	97	8	92
33-34	2	98	8	95	12	88
31-32	6	97	16	92	17	83
29-30	6	95	15	87	22	75
27-28	14	92	31	82	24	66
25-26	12	88	34	74	26	56
23-24	19	84	38	65	18	48
21-22	13	79	44	55	19	40
19-20	16	74	32	46	15	34
17-18	20	69	37	37	19	27
15-16	34	61	46	27	15	21
13-14	55	48	23	18	16	14
11-12	46	32	31	12	17	8
9-10	36	20	14	6	6	4
7-8	24	11	9	3	3	2
5-6	16	5	4	1.5	1	1
3-4	5	2	3	0.6		
1-2	4	0.6				
0			1	0.1	2	0.4
No. of cases	333		402		256	
Upper Quartile	20.2		24.2		29.9	
Median	14.3		21.5		24.1	
Lower Quartile	10.9		15.7		15.4	
Norm.	14		22		24	

TABLE 27

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Silent Reading

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
39-40			1	99.9		
37-38						
35-36					5	99.1
33-34	1	99.8	1	99.7	2	97.7
31-32	1	99.5	5	99	6	96
29-30	1	99	6	98	9	93
27-28	2	99	8	96	20	88
25-26	2	98	11	94	17	81
23-24	5	97	32	89	23	73
21-22	11	94	22	82	28	64
19-20	10	90	40	75	23	54
17-18	10	87	37	66	29	44
15-16	20	81	57	55	31	33
13-14	18	75	38	44	21	23
11-12	21	68	48	34	12	17
9-10	28	59	38	24	10	13
7-8	42	47	38	15	15	8
5-6	37	33	22	8	6	4
3-4	37	20	14	3	4	2
1-2	25	9	6	1	1	0.9
0	13	2	1	0.1	2	0.4
No. of cases.....	284		425		264	
Upper Quartile.....	14.1		19.9		24.4	
Median.....	8.4		12.9		19.1	
Lower Quartile.....	4.8		10.3		14.5	
Norm.....	8		13		19	

TABLE 28

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE GERMAN TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Composition

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		1 $\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		2 $\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
14					1	99.9
13					1	99.7
12					1	99
11					1	99
10	2	99.8	5	99.5	5	99
9	5	99	13	98	17	96
8	1	99	22	95	44	89
7	14	97	39	89	65	77
6	37	93	78	79	94	58
5	71	83	118	61	80	39
4	135	64	159	36	79	20
3	193	34	85	14	33	8
0.5	75	10	36	4	14	2
0	19	2	2	0.2	3	0.3
No. of cases.....	552		557		438	
Upper Quartile.....	4.9		6.2		7.4	
Median.....	3.9		5.0		6.1	
Lower Quartile.....	3.2		4.1		4.8	
Norm.....	4		5		6	

TABLE 20

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE SPANISH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS*Vocabulary*

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
100								
97-99					2	99.4		
94-96							1	99.2
91-93	1	99.9						
88-90	1	99.8					2	98
85-87	2		1	99.7			2	97
82-84	2	99.7	1	99.5			2	96
79-81					3	99	3	95
76-78	1	99	1	99.3	2	98	4	94
73-75	5	99	2	99	5	97	9	89
70-72	4	98	3	99	5	96	7	86
67-69	5	97	2	98	15	92	20	78
64-66	5	97	2	98	18	88	28	65
61-63	3	96	7	97	27	82	26	53
58-60	3	95	8	96	35	74	23	43
55-57	2	95	11	94	29	67	20	34
52-54	4	94	19	92	37	58	11	29
49-51	7	94	30	87	46	48	11	24
46-48	5	93	54	80	51	36	14	18
43-45	8	92	56	72	26	29	14	12
40-42	16	90	65	63	41	20	6	9
37-39	25	86	95	50	20	15	4	7
34-36	25	82	93	36	27	9	5	5
31-33	29	78	85	24	13	6	5	3
28-30	52	71	76	14	9	4	6	1
25-27	65	61	43	8	8	2		
22-24	75	51	26	4	5	0.7	2	0.4
19-21	70	39	22	1	2	0.2		
16-18	77	27	6	0.4				
13-15	61	16	2	0.1	1	0.1		
10-12	44	7						
7-9	16	2						
4-6	4	1						
1-3	3	0.2	1					
No. of cases.....	618		711		428		225	
Upper Quartile.....	30.8		44.0		58.5		66.3	
Median.....	23.4		37.0		49.7		59.9	
Lower Quartile.....	17.0		31.1		41.9		49.7	
Norm.....	22		37		55		60	

TABLE 30

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE SPANISH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Grammar

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
48-49							1	99.8
46-47					1	99.9	5	98.5
44-45					5	99.2	6	96
42-43			3	99.6	5	98	8	93
40-41			5	99	9	96	19	88
38-39			6	98	8	94	22	79
36-37			5	97	11	92	22	70
34-35			10	96	23	88	15	62
32-33	2	99.5	14	95	23	83	18	55
30-31	4	99	17	93	24	77	12	49
28-29	8	98	31	89	31	71	20	42
26-27	5	97	34	85	37	63	11	36
24-25	9	96	34	80	41	54	10	31
22-23	6	95	52	74	40	45	12	27
20-21	15	93	51	67	45	35	10	22
18-19	24	90	58	60	36	25	5	19
16-17	26	86	58	52	23	18	10	16
14-15	37	81	90	42	23	13	7	12
12-13	73	72	86	30	13	9	10	9
10-11	86	58	71	19	12	6	4	6
8-9	101	43	54	10	12	3	4	4
6-7	98	27	30	5	5	1	4	3
4-5	69	13	14	2	2	0.5	3	1
2-3	33	5	3	0.5			1	0.2
0-1	12	1	2	0.3	1	0.1		
No. of cases.....	608		728		430		239	
Upper Quartile.....	13.6		22.9		30.1		38.1	
Median.....	9.9		16.3		24.1		31.4	
Lower Quartile.....	6.8		12.1		18.9		22.3	
Norm.....	10		16		23		30	

TABLE 31

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE SPANISH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Silent Reading

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
36			2	99.9			1	99.7
35							2	99.0
34			2	99.6			1	98
33					2	99.8	3	97
32			1	99	3	99.2	11	94
31	1	99.9	3	99	3	99	13	88
30					4	98	10	83
29			7	98	11	96	13	77
28			2	98	8	94	10	71
27	2	99.6	8	97	13	91	14	66
26	3	99	6	96	20	88	16	58
25	4	98	14	95	25	82	10	52
24	2	98	11	93	18	78	18	45
23	4	97	23	90	27	72	11	38
22	10	96	20	87	29	66	10	33
21	7	94	14	85	35	59	16	27
20	7	93	37	81	28	51	6	21
19	12	91	32	76	22	46	8	18
18	9	89	32	72	27	40	7	14
17	4	88	39	67	17	35	5	11
16	8	87	34	61	31	29	1	10
15	8	85	46	56	18	24	1	9
14	8	84	46	49	19	20	1	9
13	14	82	46	43	16	16	3	8
12	6	80	41	36	13	12	2	7
11	11	78	51	30	10	10	5	5
10	19	76	28	24	10	7	2	3
9	13	73	35	20	4	6	1	3
8	17	70	18	16	3	5		
7	31	65	23	13	5	4		
6	39	59	18	10	4	3		
5	42	51	19	7	2	2		
4	60	38	13	5	4	2		
3	59	30	10	3	2	1		
2	70	18	6	2	1	0.6	1	2
1	33	8	4	1.6			1	1.7
0	28	3	9	0.6	2	0.2	3	0.7
<hr/>								
No. of cases.....	531		700		436		206	
Upper Quartile.....	10.3		19.2		23.9		29.2	
Median.....	5.4		14.6		20.3		25.1	
Lower Quartile.....	3.3		10.7		15.8		21.3	
Norm.....	5		13		19		24	

TABLE 32

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN
COMMITTEE SPANISH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Composition

Score	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr.		$1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$2\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
11	1	99.8			2	99	1	99.5
10	1	99.3	1	99.6			4	97
9	1	98.6	1	99	2	98	6	92
8	2	98	2	98	3	97	5	86
7	7	96	6	96	8	94	10	79
6	18	91	12	91	25	85	21	63
5	23	83	23	82	34	69	21	42
4	53	68	40	66	44	47	20	21
3	46	48	48	43	26	28	5	9
2	36	32	30	23	22	16	3	5
.5	35	17	21	10	11	7	2	2
0	26	5	9	2	7	2	1	0.5
No. of cases.....	249		193		184		99	
Upper Quartile.....	4.8		4.9		5.8		6.9	
Median.....	3.6		3.8		4.6		5.5	
Lower Quartile.....	2.0		2.6		3.2		4.7	
Norm.....	3.4		4.0		4.6		5.4	

INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS AND OVERLAPPING OF CLASSES

An examination of the foregoing tables shows a striking range of achievement at each year level and in every ability tested. From this variability there results an enormous overlapping of distributions. This lack of homogeneity in classes is nothing new. It has already been noted in connection with the distribution of scores in Canadian and English schools. Teachers are fully aware of it and list it as one of the greatest obstacles to efficient instruction. The tests, however, have not only revealed this defect, but show the exact extent of it.

In the American report it is shown that approximately 50% of all pupils in the schools are misclassified to the extent of one semester. In the present report the misclassification by a whole year is shown in order that comparison may be made with Canadian and English schools.

Figures 17 to 20 based on the data for the United States show the facts of variability more vividly than the tables from which they are derived. They show graphically, (1) the range of achievement, which is so great that almost the entire range of possible scores is represented at each level, (2) the interquartile range, or the limits which include the middle fifty per cent., and (3) the curve of growth from year to year. They give a clear picture of overlapping and the increment of progress from year to year in the various linguistic abilities.

The significance of the facts of overlapping can be shown more accurately by determining the percentage of the total number of cases of each year group that reaches or exceeds the median of the next higher year or by determining the percentage of cases that fails to reach the median of the next year below. These facts are given for the French tests in table 33. They have been

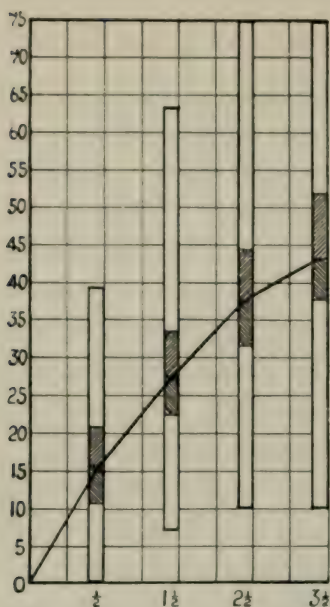


Fig. 17.—French Vocabulary.—United States.

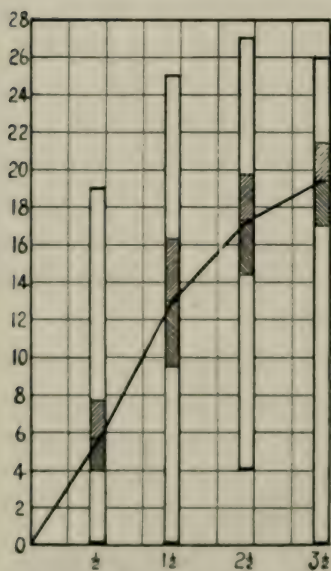


Fig. 19.—French Silent Reading.—United States.

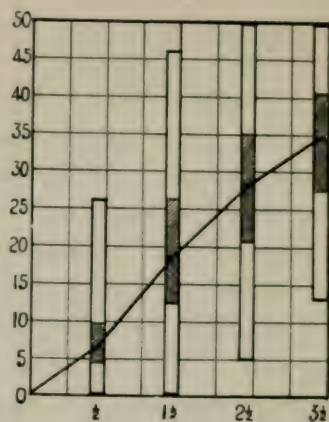


Fig. 18.—French Grammar.—United States.

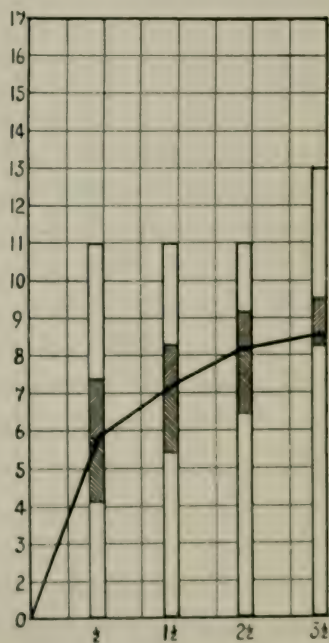


Fig. 20.—French Composition.—United States.

worked out for the French tests only, in order that comparisons may be made with Canadian and English schools.

TABLE 33

Showing in the upper line the per cent. of each year group reaching or exceeding the median of the next year above, in the second line the per cent. failing to reach the median of the next year below and in the third line the total per cent. misplaced.

	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Vocabulary—% above.....	4	13	27	
% below.....		5	15	25
Total—% misplaced.....	4	18	42	25
Grammar—% above.....	1	20	25	
% below.....		4	21	25
Total—% misplaced.....	1	24	46	25
Silent Reading—% above.....	4	18	28	
% below.....		8	18	28
Total—% misplaced.....	4	26	46	28
Free Composition—% above.....	35	38	47	
% below.....		17	23	17
Total—% misplaced.....	35	55	70	17

The concrete application of these figures shows that the following percentages of pupils in the American high schools are misplaced by a whole year, being in a class either one year behind or one year ahead of their proper position as determined by the results of objective tests.

TABLE 32a

	Pupils	Total	%
Vocabulary.....	560	2678	21
Grammar.....	548	2531	21
Silent Reading.....	566	2375	24
Free Composition.....	651	1400	47
Estimated average.....			26

SCHOOL AND CLASS VARIATIONS

Table 34 gives class medians for each of the French tests in individual schools and classes for a considerable number of representative schools distributed throughout the United States. The median scores are given for year intervals only, in order that comparisons may be made more easily with tables 12 and 20, which contain the same data for Canadian and English schools. This table reveals approximately the same condition as was found in Canadian and English schools. At the $1\frac{1}{2}$ year level we find that 6 classes out of 87 in vocabulary, 9 out of 87 in grammar, 13 out of 90 in silent reading, and 24 out of 85 in free composition reach or exceed the medians of the $2\frac{1}{2}$ year level. At the same level 6 classes out of 85 in free composition fail to reach the medians of the $\frac{1}{2}$ year level. At the $2\frac{1}{2}$ year level 12 classes out of 66 in vocabulary, 11 out of 66 in grammar, 9 out of 63 in silent reading and 38 out of 59 in free composition reach or exceed the norms of the $3\frac{1}{2}$ level while 1 class in vocabulary, 4 in grammar, 2 in silent reading and 8 in free composition fail to reach the median of the $1\frac{1}{2}$ year level.

At the $3\frac{1}{2}$ year level 5 classes in vocabulary, 9 in grammar, 8 in silent reading and 5 in free composition fail to reach the medians of the $2\frac{1}{2}$ year level.

A woeful lack of a common standard is apparent. We are accustomed to individual variations. They have always existed, and always will, but here are whole classes doing in one year and a half what other classes take two years and a half to accomplish. The dire need for some objective criterion could hardly be shown more clearly.

TABLE 34

TABLE SHOWING CLASS MEDIANS FOR DIFFERENT SCHOOLS AND CLASSES IN THE FRENCH TESTS . . . AMERICAN SCHOOLS

	School	½ yr.			1½ yrs.			2½ yrs.			3½ yrs.						
		V.	G.	R.	V.	G.	R.	V.	G.	R.	V.	G.	R.	C.			
National Norms.....	1	16	5	6	5.8	27	19	12	7.3	37	29	17	8.3	45	37	20	9
	2	19	10	9	8	30	13	14	5								
	3	15	10	6	9	27	20	12	9	44	34	18	9				
	4																
	5	11	3	2	..	17.5	10	11	..	33	17	16	..	43	29	16	9
	6	18	10	11	..												
	7																
	8	11	4	3	4	21	15.5	10	8	22	16	14	8	58	39	21.5	10
		12	5	4	..	20	7	7	5					35	28	16	9.5
		14	5	5	3	23	10	6	6					27.5	29	13	7.5
		11	5	1	4.5												
		16	6	2	4												
		9	9	5	2	6	30	23	17	9	43	28	21	10	58	42.5	21
	20		7	4	6	30	16	15	10	38	27	19	11				
	15	5	3	2	2	29	20	18	9	39	25	19	11				
	14	4	4	2	..	29	14	16	9								
	12		4	3	2												
	10																
	11																
	12	21	5	8	5.5	32	19	19	10	43	28	21	10	35	28	16	9
	21		5	8	7	27	18.5	18	7.5								
	12	12	5	7	7					38	27	19	11				
	13	13	7	10	9					39	25	19	11				
	22		5	7	9												
	13													41	37	17	9

TABLE 34—Continued.

14	11	7	5	8	31	31	14	9	35	34	14	63	44	21	10
					33.5	38	13	9	38	35	18	44	39	20	9
15	22	7	8	6	30	19	14	9	40	35	15	51	41.5	20	9
16	16	5	4	5.5	30	17	13.5		33.5	25.5	16	32	19	18	7
17	16	3	5	6											
18	15	3	5	6											
19	4	4	3	6											
20	17	4.5	4	7.5											
21	12.5	8	6	7											
22	15	6	6	7											
23	16	5	7	8											
24	19	5	3	3.5											
25	12	7	3	4	33	21	9	5	32	24	14	7			
26	16	4			21	15	12	8	35	27	16	9	39.5	32	16
27					28.5	9.5	8	7	32	9					10
28	16	4.5	5	5	35	23	18	10	44	30	21	9			
29	20	6.5	5	6	23.5	20	12	7	34	33	16	8			
30					28	18.5	12	7							
31					24	15	11	8	40	21	18	9.5			
32					23	10	8	9	40	33	17	10	46	41	22
33					30	32	14	9	58	37	15	10			10
34	17.5	11	8	9	32	24	13	9	37	33	18.5	10			
	16	8	7	7	26	15	10	6.5	47	33	17	10			
35	12.5	3.5	3	4	29	19	9	9	39	31	19	11	54	35	20
36	15	6	3		33	25	13	8							11
					32	25	13	8							
					33	31	16	9							
					28.5	14.5	11.5	6.5							
					23	14.5	11	8	37	33	18	9	51	41	21

TABLE 34—Continued.

[illegible]

COMPARISON OF NORMS IN THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS FOR CANADA, ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

In view of the fact that the norms for the French tests are based on such large numbers of cases in Canada, England and the United States, it is felt that the results are a highly reliable and objective measure of achievement. It thus becomes a matter of interest to compare linguistic achievement in these three countries in so far as it is measured by the tests.

Table 35 gives norms in the various tests at different levels for the three countries. The norms for England are based on the distributions of pupils who have had no preparatory French.

TABLE 35

Showing norms for the French tests for England, United States and Canada.

Years.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Vocabulary</i>							
United States.....	15	27	37	43			
England.....	15	22	30	39	50	57	63
Canada.....	14	19	25	34	46		
<i>Grammar</i>							
United States.....	7	19	28	35			
England.....	5	8	16	23	32	35	39
Canada.....	5	8	14	23	31		
<i>Silent Reading</i>							
United States.....	6	13	17	19			
England.....	2	4	8	12	15	17	18
Canada.....	3	6	9	14	19		
<i>Free Composition</i>							
United States.....	6	7	8	9			
England.....	6	8	9	10	12	13	14
Canada.....	6	6	7	9	10		

Table 35 shows that the norms for the United States are uniformly and significantly higher than those for Canada and England in vocabulary, grammar and silent reading, while in free composition they hold an intermediate position between Canada and England. While such comparisons can be made directly from the norms they are shown more clearly in figures 21 to 24, which show the curves of growth in the several abilities for the three countries.

In comparing the curves of the United States with those of Canada and England there are certain factors that should be borne in mind as likely to influence achievement. In the first place, courses of study in the high schools of the United States almost universally require five periods of 50 minutes a week with a normal election of four subjects. The general average in Canadian high schools is four periods of 35 or 40 minutes weekly. The Canadian high school pupil has a programme which includes seven or eight subjects as against four subjects which are normal for the United States and five subjects in England. In English secondary schools the normal time allotment is five periods of 40 or 45 minutes per week. It will thus be seen that in the matter of time the English system falls midway between that of Canada and the United States.

Another important factor influencing achievement is age, and here there is a decided difference between the systems. Normally the Canadian pupil takes his first two years of French in grades IX and X, that is, in the first two years of secondary school. As the average age of entrance into the secondary school is 14 years this means that the Canadian pupil takes his first two years of French in his 14th and 15th years. In English schools the pupil normally takes his first two years of French in

his 12th and 13th years. In the schools of the United States, on the contrary, pupils beginning French in high school are divided about equally between grades IX, X and XI. In other words, at least one-third of the pupils take their first two years of French in grades XI and XII, that is, two years later than Canadian pupils, and three to four years later than English pupils. These pupils also are very likely to have had two years of Latin. The fact that one-third of the beginners' group consists of pupils who are more select and mature, a large proportion of whom have had two years of Latin, is almost certain to raise the norms in the first two years.

In the upper years another factor that is favourable to the schools of the United States is the higher degree of selection that takes place. Modern languages are almost universally elective in the United States whereas in Canada, although theoretically elective, certain choices are practically forced upon pupils by the schools.

These variable factors make a comparison between the systems somewhat difficult and must be carefully borne in mind in judging the results.

The curves of growth in figures 21 to 24 reveal the following facts:

Vocabulary. The American curve is consistently higher. The steep pitch after the three and a half year level is probably due to the natural selection taking place in the third and fourth years. The English curve falls about midway between the Canadian and the American curve, but does not reach the level of the American four year schools until nearly a year later. Canadian schools show about the same difference, not reaching the American three and a half year level until nearly a year later. The greatest gain in vocabulary by the American schools

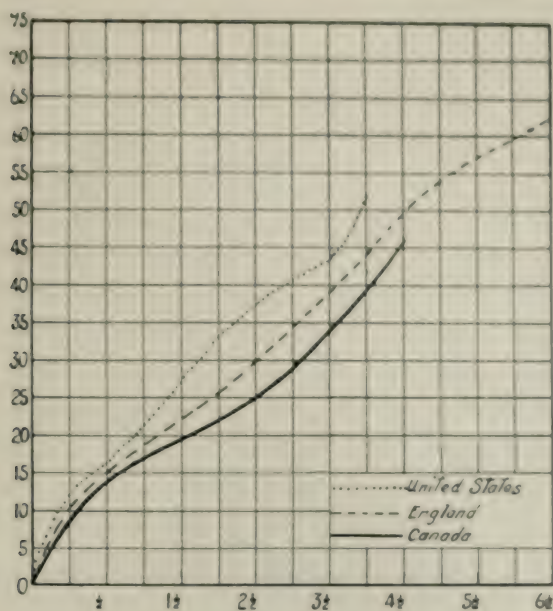


Fig. 21.—Comparison of growth curves of United States, England and Canada.—French Vocabulary.

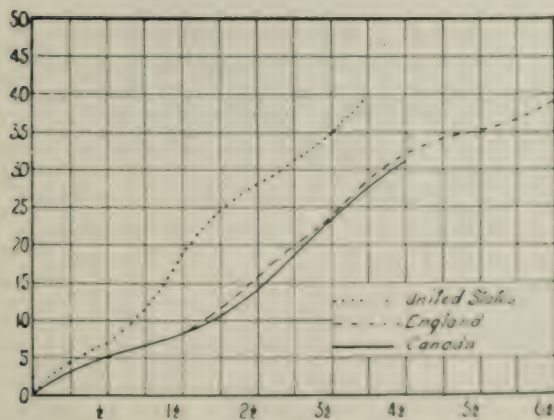


Fig. 22.—Comparison of growth curves of United States, England and Canada.—French Grammar.

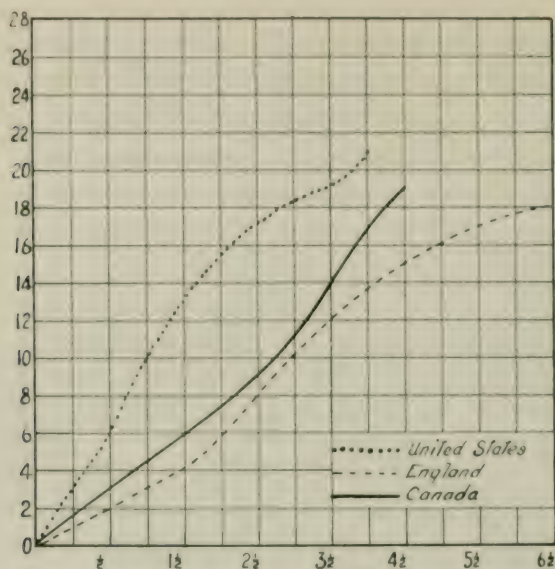


Fig. 23.—Comparison of growth curves of United States, England and Canada a.—French Silent Reading.

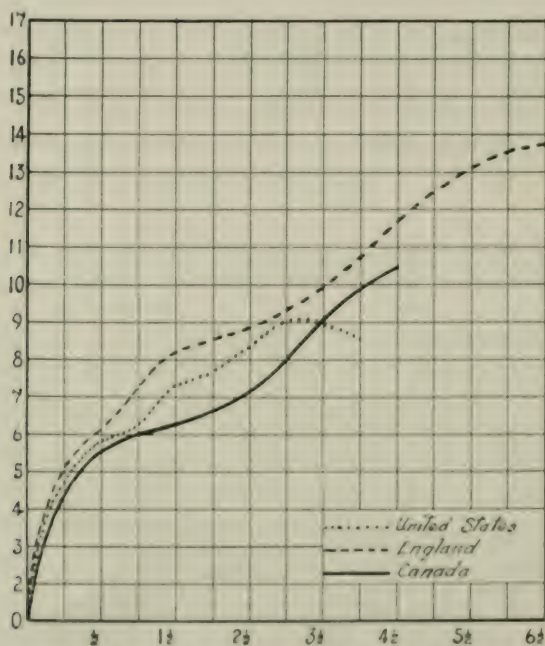


Fig. 24.—Comparison of growth curves of United States, England and Canada.—French Composition.

over the English and Canadian schools is shown at the two and a half year level. From that point on the three curves run almost parallel, although there seems to be a slight tendency on the part of Canadian schools to gain on both English and American schools.

Grammar. The curves here show almost the same tendencies. The American curve is the highest and shows the greatest gain at the two and a half year level. The English and Canadian curves show approximately equal growth, but the tendency to overtake the American schools is less marked. It is to be noted that even at the six and a half year level English schools have not quite reached the American four year level.

Silent Reading. Here the differences are more startling. The American curve again indicates the most progress and shows the greatest gain over the other two systems at the two year level, with a gain of approximately two years over Canadian schools and two and a half over English schools. That is to say, English schools do not reach the reading norms of the American schools at the two year level until the four and a half year level. Canadian schools reach these norms slightly before the four year level. The Canadian curve shows a sharp upward pitch from the two and a half year level on, indicative of much more rapid progress,—so much so that at the three and a half year level they are only one year behind the American schools, instead of nearly two years as they were at the two year level. The English curve on the contrary tends to flatten out, and has not at the six and a half year level attained the norms of the American four year level or the Canadian four and a half year level. The results of the reading test in the English schools seem to support the complaint made by several English reports to the effect that “the large proportion of available

time devoted to the often futile attempt to train pupils to write French leaves too little time for the reading of French and seriously hampers progress in facility of speech."¹

Free Composition. Here the English curve shows the greatest progress, with the United States curve next, until the three and a half year level, where the United States curve flattens out while the Canadian pitches sharply upwards, showing a tendency to overtake the English curve. The English curve shows its greatest gain over the other two at the two year level. One must remember here the complaint referred to above that English schools give too much time to writing and not enough to reading. Free composition is definitely stated as one of the objectives in the English system and is required in both the first and second examinations.

The greatest gain made by the American schools in vocabulary, grammar and reading is always at the two or the two and a half year level. Thus we are forced to the conclusion that these differences are due to some factor that acts only during these first two years. It has already been shown that there is a decided difference in the age at which languages are begun in the three systems. However, if a two year age advantage is accountable alone for these differences one would expect Canadian schools to show a gain over English schools in the first two years. This they fail to do in anything but silent reading. One thing is clear: Canadian and English schools make approximately the same progress as American schools after the first two years, but they fail to overcome the lead obtained by American schools in the first two years except in the case of free

¹Board of Education. Educational Pamphlet, No. 47. *The Position of French in Grant-Aided Secondary Schools in England*, p. 16.

composition, where English schools are consistently higher in spite of the discrepancy in age and where Canadian schools overcome the lead of American schools and pass them at the three year level. A further and more detailed study of objectives, methods and organization is necessary to explain these differences satisfactorily.

THE RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS IN THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

The Protestant schools of the province of Quebec are under the control of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction. The schools are classified as elementary, intermediate and high school. The elementary school course includes grades I-VII, the intermediate, grades VIII and IX (occasionally but rarely grade X) and the high school, grades VIII-XI. The study of French is optional in grade III but obligatory in grades IV to XI inclusive. In the larger centres it is usually begun in grade III.

Instruction is given by what is known as the direct or natural method, and approximately sixty per cent. of the class period is devoted to oral work. In practice the percentage is higher since most of the grammar and composition exercises are conducted orally.

It will thus be seen that the survey of modern language instruction in Quebec is a special problem, and in the interpretation of the results the limitations of the tests, so far as oral proficiency and aural comprehension are concerned, should be borne in mind. Oral achievement is measured by the tests only indirectly in so far as it correlates with other linguistic abilities.

Table 36 gives norms for the Quebec schools on the Canadian committee's French tests. They represent late May median scores for pupils who have had four or five years of preparatory French.

TABLE 36

NORMS FOR FRENCH TESTS IN THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS OF QUEBEC

Year in secondary school	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary	33(396)	36(239)	42(273)	50(245)
Grammar	12(402)	19(266)	25(299)	33(243)
Silent Reading	11(337)	12(259)	15(274)	17(221)
Free Composition	8(93)	8(136)	11(53)	12(51)

To facilitate comparisons with the results obtained in other Canadian high schools and with those of the United States, table 37 contains the norms of the three systems. To these have been added norms for two groups of English pupils closely resembling the Quebec groups in the method used and the time spent on the language. Group A includes pupils with an average of two and a half years of preparatory school French, and group B pupils with at least three years of preparatory French. Many of the latter have had five or six years of French, the group averaging close to four years. The method employed in the English schools, at least in the earlier stages, is the direct or oral method, although there is in all probability less uniformity of method than is found in the Quebec schools. The same table contains the mid-year norms for the Canadian and American schools. Inasmuch as the norms for the Canadian and English schools are mid-year norms it was necessary in the case of these systems to obtain end-year norms by interpolation.

A word or two must be said concerning the norms obtained in the province of Quebec. In order to secure a sufficient number of cases to make the norms reliable it was found necessary to pool results obtained in each grade. Inasmuch as the mid-year tests were given about the middle of March, and the end-year tests about the middle of May, these norms represent the achievement

of the classes about halfway between full year norms and half year norms, roughly about three quarter year norms.

Unfortunately the results obtained from a certain number of the B forms are included in these figures. In the case of vocabulary and free composition this has had no appreciable effect, but in the case of silent reading and grammar there is evidence to show that the B form is considerably harder, especially in the upper years. This has probably tended to depress slightly the norms in reading and grammar for the third and fourth years.

An examination of the results of the A forms alone would lead one to believe that the norms for silent, reading in the third and fourth years should be at least 16 and 18 respectively. The difference in the grammar test is so small that the norms may be left unchanged without doing any great injustice to the classes concerned.

Another point to be considered is the length of class-periods. In English schools the time allowance is five periods of 40 minutes per week. In Quebec there are five periods of 30 minutes in high schools, but in elementary schools the periods are of only 20 minutes or about one hour and forty minutes per week. In the rest of Canada the average time allowance in the secondary school is four periods of 35 minutes. These differences in time must be considered in examining the figures in table 37.

TABLE 37

Year in secondary school.....	1	2	3	4
<i>Vocabulary</i>				
Quebec.....	33	36	42	50
England A.....	32.5	35	43	50
England B.....	36	38	45	50
Canada.....	17	22	29	40
United States.....	22	31	41	52

Grammar

Quebec	12	19	25	33
England A.....	20.5	23	27.5	32.5
England B.....	21.5	25	29.5	31.5
Canada.....	6.5	11	18.5	27
United States	11	25	34	40

Silent Reading

Quebec.....	11	12	15	17
England A.....	10	11.5	14	16
England B.....	10.5	12	13.5	16
Canada.....	4	7.5	11	17
United States	8	15	19	21

Free Composition

Quebec.....	8	8	11	12
England A.....	9.5	10	10.5	12
England B.....	9.5	10.5	11	12
Canada.....	6	6.5	8	10
United States	6.2	7.6	9	9

Inasmuch as the Quebec system and the two English groups resemble each other closely in method and organization we shall examine them first. In vocabulary and free composition the three groups are equal at the four year level. The English group B has a slight lead at the 1 and 2 year levels which it fails to hold. In grammar the Quebec group leads slightly at the 4 year level although the two English groups had a lead of 8.5 and 9.5 test units (points) respectively at the 1 year level. In silent reading the English groups are slightly behind at all levels although they have an advantage in time allowance. One is led to believe also that if the A forms only had been used in Quebec the difference in favour of the Quebec schools would have been greater.

The comparison with other Canadian schools and American schools is less favourable to the Quebec system. With four or five years of elementary school training in French, pupils in grade VIII in Quebec high schools have

a vocabulary score approximating the $3\frac{1}{2}$ year level in other Canadian schools. In grammar their score is midway between the norms of the $1\frac{1}{2}$ year and $2\frac{1}{2}$ year levels, and in silent reading and composition a score midway between the norms of the $2\frac{1}{2}$ and $3\frac{1}{2}$ year levels. Thus, estimated in terms of the achievement of other Canadian schools, they have, at the end of the first year of high school instruction, a lead of three years and a half in vocabulary, two years in grammar, and three years in silent reading and free composition.

Compared in the same way with the American schools they have a lead of two years in vocabulary, one year in grammar, a year and a half in silent reading, and two years and a half in composition. Let us examine the relative position of these schools at the four year level. In vocabulary the $3\frac{1}{2}$ year lead has been reduced to 10 test-units (points), or about the equivalent of the fourth year work, that is, the $3\frac{1}{2}$ year lead has been reduced to 1 year. In grammar the lead has been reduced to $\frac{5}{6}$ test-units (points), or about two-thirds of a year. In silent reading the lead has been wiped out, and in composition the lead of three years has been reduced to two. The American schools lead the Quebec schools at the four year level in all the tests except free composition, where they are 3 test-units behind.

It must not be forgotten that the other Canadian schools and the American schools have an advantage in length of class periods over the Quebec schools in the high school grades.

The differences in objective, and hence the emphasis on phonetic accuracy and oral proficiency, render comparisons between schools, where such differences exist, difficult and almost futile. There is little doubt that if comparable measures of phonetic accuracy and oral

proficiency were available the comparison would be favourable to the Quebec schools.

This comparison has, however, an interesting bearing on the important problem of the extent to which oral drill provides training in grammar and reading. The relatively low scores in reading and grammar, after years of oral training, make one sceptical of the supposed transfer to reading ability.

THE RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH TESTS IN QUEBEC

Considering the importance of English as the second language in the province of Quebec, the Canadian committee felt that all possible information should be collected about methods and achievement in this province. In order to obtain an exact measure of achievement in English, the committee prepared and standardized tests for vocabulary, grammar and silent reading. The vocabulary test consists of 100 words selected from the first 5,000 words in *The Teacher's Word Book*.¹ The words were chosen from successive groups of fifty, but care was taken to avoid words whose English equivalents were identical or similar. Each word (in the two alternative forms prepared and standardized) is followed by five French words, one of which is the equivalent of the English word, and is to be underscored.

The grammar test is of the completion type, consisting of 100 sentences in French followed by an incomplete English translation to be completed by the student. The reading test makes use of the Thorndike-McCall paragraph question technique, and incorporates several selections from the Thorndike-McCall reading scale.² The test consists of eight paragraphs with five questions on each paragraph.

Forms A and B are available for each test. A sample

¹*The Teacher's Word Book*, by E. L. Thorndike, New York, 1921.

²*Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale*, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York.

of the first ten items in the vocabulary and grammar tests, and the first two paragraphs of the reading test will indicate their character. They are published and distributed by the Canadian Committee on Modern Languages.

Vocabulaire

Instructions: Soulignez dans chaque ligne le mot français qui vous semble la meilleure traduction du mot anglais comme dans les exemples A et B.

A. book bac lire bec livre bon

B. chair cher chaise sel chair seau

Temps permis: ving-deux minutes. Temps employé . . . minutes

1. by	acheter	baie	par	avec	bise
2. man	manne	femme	monde	homme	mal
3. year	oreille	entendre	année	hiver	mois
4. first	dernier	pin	fourrure	premier	étroit
5. cold	chaud	coller	froid	cou	comble
6. play	jouer	plaie	joueur	danser	carte
7. paper	palper	papier	paupière	parler	pan
8. alone	aller	seul	allonger	permettre	fouille
9. story	verité	histoire	store	raconter	oublier
10. wait	tendre	poser	revenir	attendre	poids

Grammaire

Instructions: Chacune des phrases françaises ci-jointes est suivie d'une traduction incomplète. On peut compléter correctement chaque traduction en mettant un ou deux mots entre les parenthèses. Quand vous aurez décidé ce qu'il faut pour compléter la traduction écrivez-le sur la ligne à droite de la traduction. Ne consacrez pas trop de temps à la même phrase. Commencez par les plus faciles. Vous ferez les plus difficiles après.

EXEMPLES: A. Je vois un grand chien. I see a (—) dog..... ..big.....

B. Je le donne à mon ami. I give it (—) friend. ..to my.....

Temps permis: Trente minutes. Temps employé . . . minutes

1. Je vais à l'église. I am going (—) church.....
2. Voici le crayon de la jeune fille. Here is the (—) pencil
3. Vous avez froid. You (—) cold.....
4. Marie a une plume rouge. Mary has a (—).....
5. Jeanne a quinze ans. Jean (—).....
6. Elle s'appelle Marie. (—) Mary.....
7. Je me lève à huit heures. I (—) at eight o'clock.....
8. Elle se lave les mains. She (—) hands.....
9. Il est assis. He (—).....
10. Nous allons fermer la porte. We (—) close the door

Compréhension

Instructions: Vous allez subir une épreuve pour savoir si vous comprenez l'anglais. Lisez les paragraphes anglais qui suivent et répondez en FRANÇAIS à chaque question. Les réponses aux questions doivent être tirées des paragraphes anglais. Si vous trouvez une question trop difficile sautez-la mais retournez-y plus tard. Relisez les paragraphes autant de fois qu'il vous le faudra mais ne consacrez pas trop de temps au même paragraphe.

Temps permis: Trente-deux minutes. Temps employé . . . minutes

- I. Bob is a very little boy and he has two great friends, a dog and a cat. The dog and cat are friends also. The dog is big and black and his name is Carlo. The cat is white and Bob calls her Kitty. Bob talks to his friends but they cannot talk to him. Carlo can bark.

1. How many friends does Bob have?

2. What is the name of Bob's dog?

3. What colour is Bob's cat?

4. Is Bob a big boy?

5. What can Carlo do?

- II. *On Monday Dick saw a red fox, a gray squirrel and a black bear in the woods. The next day he saw a brown rabbit and five brown hens in the field. He killed the fox but let the bear and the rest of the animals live.

6. What colour was the rabbit?

7. How many hens did he see?

8. What was the name of the boy who saw the squirrel?

9. What black animal did he see in the woods?

10. On what day did he see the hens?

The reliability of these tests compares favourably with that of the other tests prepared by the American and Canadian committees. It was found impracticable in the case of the grammar and silent reading tests to administer both forms to the same students in sufficiently large numbers to obtain reliability coefficients of any significance. The equivalence of the two forms was established

by giving the A and B forms to large unselected groups and then checking the results by administering both forms to a small group. The reliability of the grammar and reading tests was obtained by splitting these two tests and obtaining the reliability of the two halves. These coefficients were stepped up by the Spearman-Brown formula giving a reliability for grammar of .92 and for silent reading of .93. In the case of the vocabulary test one small group of 65 pupils gave a correlation of .90 between forms A and B. By splitting form A for another larger group a reliability of .95 was obtained.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION IN QUEBEC

The public schools in the province of Quebec are under the direction of the council of public instruction. This council consists of two committees, a Catholic and a Protestant. The schools may be French or English. The majority of the Catholic schools are French, and it is the organization of these schools which will be discussed in this chapter.

The organization of the Catholic schools of the province of Quebec resembles that of France. Schools are divided into *écoles maternelles*, *écoles primaires élémentaires*, *écoles primaires complémentaires*, *écoles ménagères*, and *écoles normales*.

The *écoles maternelles* receive children of three to six years of age, and for pupils of five or six years of age there is a *classe enfantine*, which serves as a special introduction to the *école primaire élémentaire*. The *école primaire élémentaire* is divided into three courses: *cours inférieur*, *cours moyen*, *cours supérieur*. The length of each of these courses is two years. The *école primaire élémentaire* is preceded by a *cours préparatoire* of one year,

making the length of the elementary school course seven years. The *cours préparatoire* may be omitted by those pupils who have taken the *classe enfantine* of the *école maternelle*.

The *école primaire complémentaire* serves as a continuation of the elementary school and in it there is a beginning of specialization. A certain number of subjects are common to all students, but there are four principal sections: agricultural, domestic science, commercial and industrial. In arranging the sections the number of students, their special aptitudes, and the desires of parents and pupils are considered. The agricultural section is intended for rural schools, the domestic science section for girls' schools and the commercial and industrial sections for city schools.

The *écoles normales* are specially charged with the preparation of teachers for the French schools. The training at the *écoles normales* is both academic and professional. In order to be admitted the applicant must pass an examination on the following subjects of the sixth year of the *école primaire élémentaire*: catechism, French language, history of Canada, arithmetic. The length of the normal school course is three years, but under certain conditions the course may be completed in two years.

Secondary education in Quebec is in the hands of the *collèges classiques* which in purpose and organization closely resemble the French *lycées*. There are twenty-one of these colleges which are affiliated with one or other of the two French universities, the *Université de Laval* or the *Université de Montréal*. The *collèges classiques* all teach the programme of work outlined by the university with which they are affiliated and write the examinations set by the universities. The *cours classique*

is an eight years' course at the end of which the successful student receives the *baccalauréat*. The elementary years of the course in the classical college are the *sixième*, *cinquième*, *quatrième* and *troisième*, and correspond roughly to a high school. The advanced years known as *seconde rhétorique*, *philosophie I*, *philosophie II* form the college course.

There is no liaison between the different units of this educational system, and pupils are admitted to the *écoles normales* and the *collèges classiques* only after passing the entrance examinations prescribed by these institutions.

English occupies an important place in all parts of the educational system. In the *école primaire élémentaire* it is obligatory from the third year on and may be begun in the second year if the school board so desires. In the *école normale* English is obligatory in all three years of the course. In the *collège classique* English is required for entrance and is obligatory in the first six years of the course.

The method used in the *école primaire élémentaire* is what is known as the direct or natural method, and the instruction in the first two years of the course is largely oral. In the *écoles normales* the same method is used. In the *collèges classiques* the method varies somewhat with the different institutions, but the study of English seems to be regarded more as a mental discipline than as a practical subject. There seems to be a growing tendency among the colleges in favour of approaching this subject from a more practical standpoint, and a method is gradually being evolved that combines the best points of the grammatical and the oral method.

An attempt was made by the committee to obtain as wide a sampling as possible of the *écoles primaires*, the

écoles normales and the *collèges classiques*. In the first two the attempt was only partially successful, the number of cases not being sufficiently large to give absolutely reliable norms. In the case of the *collèges classiques* it is felt that the sampling is wide enough to ensure a high degree of reliability.

RESULTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE ENGLISH TESTS

Tables 38 to 46 set forth the essential facts derived from the administration of the English tests in the French schools of the province of Quebec in February, 1927. The tables for primary schools and normal schools give the distribution of scores, medians or middle scores, upper and lower quartiles, norms, and the number of cases on which they are based. In the case of the classical colleges the tables give in addition the percentile ranks corresponding to the scores. Percentile ranks are not given for primary schools or normal schools as the number of cases is insufficient for calculating percentiles.

In the case of primary schools the test results are for the fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth years. No tests were administered in the third and fourth years because the greater part of the instruction in these years is oral.

An examination of the following nine tables shows an astonishing range of achievement in all years for each of the tests. Thus in the vocabulary test, the sixth year of the primary school shows a range from 21 to 88, the first year of the normal school from 5 to 88, and the first year of the classical colleges from 16 to 96. Similar ranges may be found in grammar and comprehension.

The result of this variability is an enormous overlapping of distributions. While this overlapping is striking in all the distributions, it is more marked in

tables 41 to 43, which contain the scores of the normal schools. Here all three years have practically the same range of achievement in each of the tests.

This lack of uniformity has already been revealed by the results of the testing in American, English, and Canadian schools. Here again, in a most convincing fashion, the tests show the need for an objective criterion and furnish a basis for accurate classification.

Figures 25 to 33, based on the data of tables 38 to 46, show the facts of variability and overlapping more strikingly than the tables from which they are derived.

TABLE 38

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES AND NORMS FOR THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH
TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Vocabulary

Score	5 yrs. Freq.	6 yrs. Freq.	7 yrs. Freq.	8 yrs. Freq.
97-100				2
93-96		2		1
89-92		12	3	9
85-88	1	8	9	6
81-84	5	7	10	7
77-80	4	10	7	5
73-76	10	6	5	3
69-72	12	7	3	4
65-68	13	6	5	2
61-64	13	8	5	1
57-60	10	7	4	
53-56	10	5	2	
49-52	13	7	2	
45-48	15	4	1	
41-44	8	5		
37-40	8	7		
33-36	11	3		
29-32	5	1		
25-28	3			
21-24	3			
17-20		1		
13-16				
9-12				
5-8				
1-4				
No. of cases...	144	106	56	40
Upper Quartile	67.8	82.4	84.2	89.9
Median.....	55.4	67.5	77.6	83.8
Lower Quartile	44	52.1	64.9	76.9
Norms.....	55	68	78	84

TABLE 39

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES AND NORMS FOR THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Grammar

Score	5 yrs. Freq.	6 yrs. Freq.	7 yrs. Freq.	8 yrs. Freq.
97-100				
93-96				
89-92		1		1
85-88				
81-84				8
77-80		1	3	1
73-76			3	4
69-72		2	2	6
65-68		2	3	8
61-64	1	6	4	2
57-60	1	6	2	2
53-56	4	10	4	4
49-52	3	9	5	4
45-48	12	13	4	1
41-44	8	8	1	4
37-40	10	11	3	
33-36	7	8	5	
29-32	17	13	1	
25-28	13	10	1	
21-24	25	9	2	
17-20	12	7	1	
13-16	12	11	1	
9-12	21	9		
5-8	15	3		
1-4	3	4		
No. of cases....	164	143	45	40
Upper Quartile	35.8	49.5	64.7	72.2
Median.....	24	35.7	51.8	66.5
Lower Quartile	13.6	21.8	37.3	54
Norms.....	24	36	52	67

TABLE 40

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES AND NORMS FOR THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH
TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Silent Reading

Score	5 yrs. Freq.	6 yrs. Freq.	7 yrs. Freq.	8 yrs. Freq.
39-40				
37-38				
35-36				
33-34				
31-32			1	4
29-30		2		2
27-28		5	4	8
25-26		4	3	10
23-24	1	14	3	5
21-22	2	8	6	5
19-20	3	17	5	1
17-18		13	4	1
15-16	7	11	2	2
13-14	16	8	5	
11-12	16	9	6	
9-10	8	5	1	
7-8	19	14	1	
5-6	11	6	1	
3-4	7	5		
1-2	6	8		
No. of cases . . .	96	129	42	38
Upper Quartile .	13.6	21.3	23.3	28.1
Median	10.2	16.7	19.4	26
Lower Quartile .	6.9	8.9	13.6	23.2
Norms	10	17	19	26

TABLE 41

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES AND NORMS FOR THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH
TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC NORMAL SCHOOLS

<i>Vocabulary</i>			
Score	1 yr. Freq.	2 yrs. Freq.	3 yrs. Freq.
97-100			2
93-96	2	1	3
89-92	5	1	6
85-88	5	2	5
81-84	4	5	4
77-80	2	13	2
73-76	2	8	1
69-72		6	3
65-68	2	15	3
61-64	3	15	1
57-60	4	6	1
53-56	3	9	1
49-52		3	
45-48	2	4	
41-44	3	2	
37-40		1	
33-36	2		1
29-32	3		
25-28			
21-24			
17-20			
13-16			
9-12			
5-8			
1-4			
No. of cases.....	42	91	33
Upper Quartile....	86.2	76.6	91.6
Median.....	67	66.4	84.5
Lower Quartile....	53.6	57.4	70.6
Norms.....	67	66	85

TABLE 42

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES AND NORMS FOR THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH
TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC NORMAL SCHOOLS

<i>Grammar</i>			
Score	1 yr. Freq.	2 yrs. Freq.	3 yrs. Freq.
97-100			
93-96			
89-92			
85-88	1		1
81-84		1	4
77-80	1	2	2
73-76	1	2	8
69-72	2	2	2
65-68	2	1	3
61-64	2	3	1
57-60	4	7	2
53-56	3	3	2
49-52	6	5	
45-48	2	5	1
41-44	1	7	2
37-40	2	10	1
33-36	3	9	
29-32	1	7	3
25-28	2	8	
21-24	2	4	
17-20	1	6	
13-16	2	2	
9-12	2		1
5-8	2		
1-4			
No. of cases.....	42	84	33
Upper Quartile.....	55.4	49.9	76.5
Median.....	49.6	39.4	70
Lower Quartile.....	26	29.5	53.5
Norm.....	50	40	70

TABLE 43

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES AND NORMS FOR THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC NORMAL SCHOOLS

<i>Silent Reading</i>			
Score	1 yr. Freq.	2 yrs. Freq.	3 yrs. Freq.
39-40		1	3
37-38		6	5
35-36		14	1
33-34		5	5
31-32		6	4
29-30	12	3	2
27-28	9	2	1
25-26	4	7	3
23-24		3	2
21-22	2	4	1
19-20	1	5	
17-18	1	10	
15-16	2	3	
13-14		6	2
11-12	2	1	
9-10	1	8	1
7-8	1		3
5-6		1	
3-4	1		
1-2		1	
No. of cases.....	36	86	33
Upper Quartile.....	29.5	34.8	36.4
Median.....	27.7	25.8	31.7
Lower Quartile.....	20.9	17.3	24.2
Norms.....	28	26	32

TABLE 44
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC CLASSICAL COLLEGES
Vocabulary

Score	Sixième		Cinquième		Quatrième		Troisième		Seconde		Rhet.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
97-100												
93-96	4	99	3	99.3	13	97.4	5	98.9	11	97.8	7	98
89-92	1	98	6	97.8	23	92	8	97	7	94.6	10	94
85-88	2	97	11	95	34	86	15	93	15	90.7	16	88
81-84	12	96	13	93	41	79	23	88	27	83	19	80
77-80	16	92	28	88	26	68	27	81	27	73	27	69
73-76	19	88	23	82	24	61	49	70	36	62	23	63
69-72	25	82	44	73	39	54	44	56	40	40	27	47
65-68	40	74	58	61	47	43	44	44	29	32	36	32
61-64	41	64	65	46	52	30	36	32	29	26.6	22	19
57-60	42	59	46	44	28	20	33	22	31	17.7	13	11
53-56	39	44	39	23	36	12	26	13	15	11.4	7	6
49-52	36	44	32	14	12	6.2	20	7.5	11	6.8	7	2
45-48	43	34	16	8	8	3.7	9	3.6	6	3.8	3	1
41-44	27	24	14	5	6	1.9	3	1.5	5	1.7	2	0
37-40	27	15	8	2.3	1	0.6	2	0.8	3	0.5		
33-36	11	8	3	1	3	0.1	1	0.3				
29-32	4	4	3	0.3	1			0.1				
25-28	3	2										
21-24	2	0.7										
17-20	1	0.3										
13-16	1	0.1										
9-12												
5-8												
1-4												
No. of cases....	396		412		394		345		282		219	
Upper Quartiles	67	75.2	75.2		86.2		76.3		83.4		84.5	
Median.....	57.3		67.8		73.3		72.7		75.2		75.9	
Lower Quartiles	47.1		59.7		65.2		63.9		67.2		69	
Norms.....	57		68		73		73		75		76	

TABLE 45

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, NORMS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC CLASSICAL COLLEGES

Grammar

Score	Sixième		Cinquième		Quatrième		Troisième		Seconde		Rhet.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
97-100												
93-96			1	99.5	3	99.3	5	99	1	99.6	1	99.6
89-92			1	99.2	10	97.5	12	95.4	9	97.8	10	97.1
85-88			1	99	7	95.2	12	92	12	94.1	8	93.1
81-84			14	97.2	13	93	18	88.7	11	89.9	13	88.4
77-80		99.3	8	94.6	20	88	21	83	15	85.2	18	81.5
73-76	3	97.9	15	91.9	20	88	21	83	24	78.2	16	73.9
69-72	5	96.1	18	88.1	19	82.7	32	75.3	25	69.4	18	66
65-68	4	95	16	84.1	24	76.9	22	67.5	16	63	21	57.4
61-64	12	92.9	22	79.6	35	68.9	37	58.9	21	55.4	25	46.9
57-60	11	89.8	31	73.3	35	59.4	32	48.8	24	47.3	19	36.9
53-56	10	87.1	29	66.3	34	50.1	33	39.4	23	38.9	22	27.7
49-52	14	83.9	33	54.1	33	41	26	30.8	19	31.2	11	20.3
45-48	21	79.3	44	45	29	32.6	27	23.1	31	22.4	9	15.8
41-44	24	73.3	41	40.5	26	25.1	23	15.8	22	12.8	14	10.7
37-40	31	66.1	40	31	25	18.2	12	10.7	9	7.3	7	6
33-36	35	57.4	33	21.9	19	12.3	12	7.2	5	4.8	4	3.5
29-32	35	48.1	22	16	19	6.6	6	4.6	7	2.6	2	2.1
25-28	40	38.2	21	10.9	11	3.1	8	2.5	3	0.8	0	
21-24	44	27.1	20	5.5	4	1	2	1.1	0		2	1.2
17-20	26	12.1	7	2.4	2	0.2	3	0.4	1	0.1	2	0.4
13-16	26	8.7	4	1.1								
9-12	17	5.3	3	0.3								
5-8	9	1.9										
1-4	3	0.3										
No. of cases	378		424		368		343		278		223	
Upper Quartiles	43.9		55.7		65.6		70.7		73.5		71.5	
Median	31.7		46.9		54.8		59.4		60.1		60	
Lower Quartiles	22.2		32.5		42.8		47.8		47.8		49.8	
Norms	32		47		55		59		60		60	

TABLE 46

DISTRIBUTION OF NORMS, MEDIANS, AND PERCENTILE RANKS IN THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ENGLISH TESTS ADMINISTERED IN QUEBEC CLASSICAL COLLEGES

Silent Reading

Score	Sixième		Cinquième		Quatrième		Troisième		Seconde		Rhet.	
	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.	Freq.	P.R.
39-40			1	99.5	2	99.6	3	99.2	1	99.8	1	99.6
37-38			6	98.6	5	98.6	7	97.7	3	99	3	98.7
35-36	2	99.6	4	97.3	12	96.3	15	94.3	11	96.2	5	96.8
33-34	0		7	96.5	13	92.9	18	89.3	17	90.6	15	92
31-32	4	98.7	10	94.2	28	87.3	27	82.3	21	74.6	18	84.2
29-30	5	97.3	13	90.6	30	79.4	29	73.7	21	74.6	23	74.4
27-28	11	94.9	23	85.9	28	71.5	34	64.1	26	65.2	30	61.8
25-26	10	91.8	36	78.2	28	62.5	29	54.4	28	54.4	20	49.9
23-24	16	87.9	30	69.6	22	54	30	45.4	24	43	18	40.9
21-22	24	81.9	33	61.4	40	45.8	43	34.2	19	35.4	19	32.1
19-20	22	75	46	51	38	33.8	30	23	18	28	16	23.7
17-18	26	67.8	39	40	37	23.6	26	14.4	26	19.2	9	17.8
15-16	27	59.8	37	35.1	25	16.5	16	7.9	18	10.4	12	12.8
13-14	39	49.9	40	20	22	10	10	3.9	11	4.6	13	6.8
11-12	68	30.9	29	11	18	4.5	4	1.8	4	1.6	4	2.8
9-10	39	17.8	17	5	4	1.5	3	0.7	2	0.4	2	1.4
7-8	38	8.2	6	2	2	0.7	0		0		0	
5-6	25	2.7	4	0.7	2	0.2	0		0		0	
3-4	12	2.7		0.1								
1-2	4	0.4	1	0.1	2	0.2	1	0.1	0		1	0.6
No. of cases....	333		382		366		325		250		210	
Upper Quartiles	17.9		23.2		26.8		28.2		30		30.1	
Median.....	12		17.7		20.7		22.9		25.2		26	
Lower Quartiles	10.2		12.9		16		18.4		19.2		20.3	
Norms.....	12		18		21		23		25		26	

TABLE 47

Showing for each test in the upper line the percentage of the year group reaching or exceeding the median of the next higher year group and in the lower line the percentage of the group failing to reach the median of the next lower group.

Primary Schools

Years.....	5	6	7	8
Vocabulary—% above.....	25	36	27	
% below.....		20	30	28
Total—% misplaced.....	25	65	57	28
Grammar—% above.....	25	21	22	
% below.....		28	20	20
Total—% misplaced.....	25	49	42	20
Comprehension—% above.....	7	36	14	
% below.....		27	36	7
Total—% misplaced.....	7	63	50	7

Normal Schools

Years.....	1	2	3
Vocabulary—% above.....	50	5	
% below.....		53	15
Total % misplaced.....	50	58	15
Grammar—% above.....	62	7	
% below.....		70	12
Total—% misplaced.....	62	77	12
Comprehension—% above.....	64	35	
% below.....		57	30
Total—% misplaced.....	64	92	30

Classical Colleges

Years.....	Six.	Cinq.	Quat.	Trois.	Sec.	Rhet.
Vocabulary—% above.....	22	30	51	42	47	
% below.....		19	33	52	45	48
Total—% misplaced.....	22	49	84	94	92	48
Grammar—% above.....	21	33	39	48	50	
% below.....		17	33	39	48	68
Total—% misplaced.....	21	50	72	87	98	68
Comprehension—% above..	26	37	40	39	45	
% below..		20	34	39	39	46
Total—% misplaced.....	26	57	74	78	84	46

TABLE 48

Primary Schools

	Pupils misplaced	Total	Percentage
Vocabulary.....	149	346	43
Grammar.....	140	392	36
Comprehension.....	111	305	36
Estimated average.....			40

Normal Schools

Vocabulary.....	79	166	47
Grammar.....	96	159	60
Comprehension.....	113	155	73
Estimated average.....			60

Classical Colleges

Vocabulary.....	1,312	2,048	64
Grammar.....	1,278	2,014	63
Comprehension.....	1,136	1,866	61
Estimated average.....			63

They show graphically (1) the range of achievement which is so great that almost the entire range of possible scores is represented at each level of instruction, (2) the interquartile ranges or the limits which include the middle fifty per cent. of the classes, which show the great overlapping of the classes, and (3) the curve of growth from year to year. They give a clear picture of overlapping and the increments of progress from year to year in the various linguistic abilities. The significance of this overlapping may be shown more exactly by calculating the percentage of the total number of cases of one year group that reach or exceed the median of the next higher year, or by determining the percentage of cases in one group that fail to reach the median of the next group below. These facts are given in tables 47 and 48.

The concrete application of these figures shows that the following percentages of pupils in the primary schools,

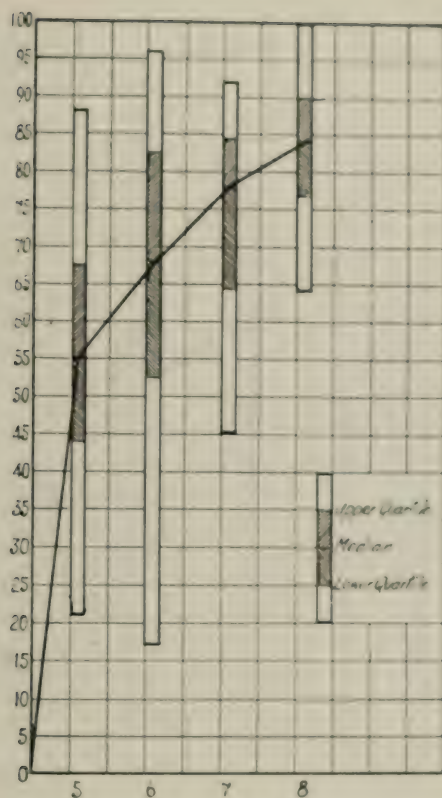


Fig. 25.—English Vocabulary.—French Primary Schools.—Quebec.

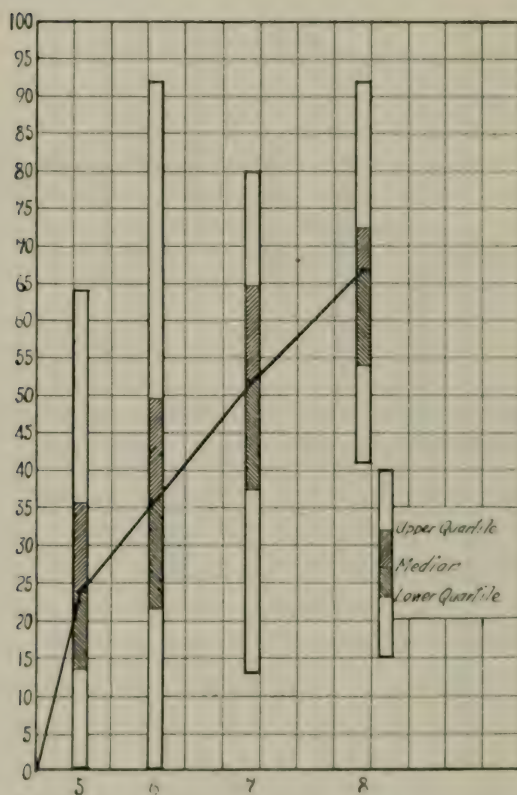


Fig. 26.—English Grammar.—French Primary Schools.—Quebec.

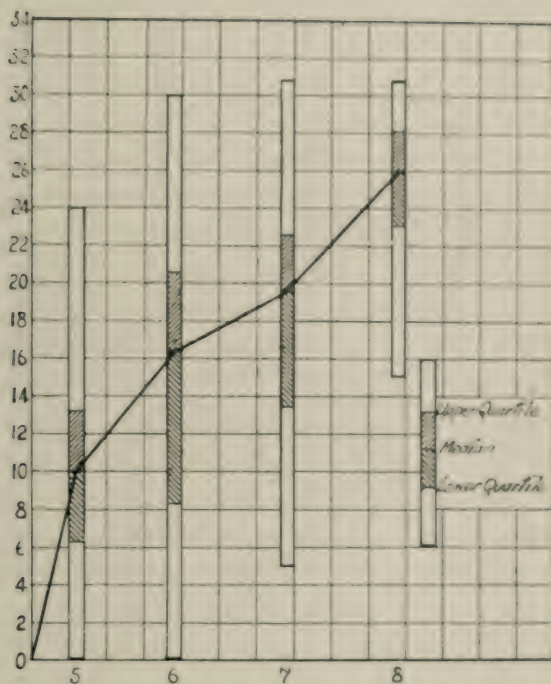


Fig. 27.—English Silent Reading.—French Primary Schools.—Quebec.

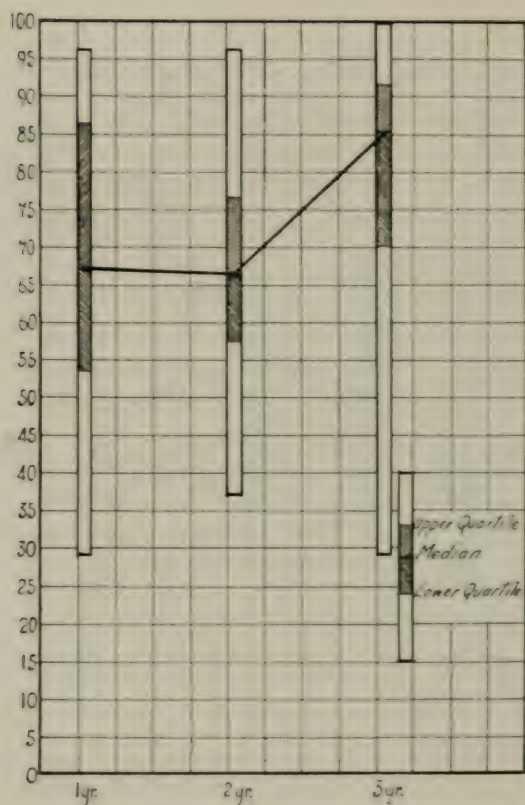


Fig. 28.—English Vocabulary.—French Normal Schools.—Quebec.

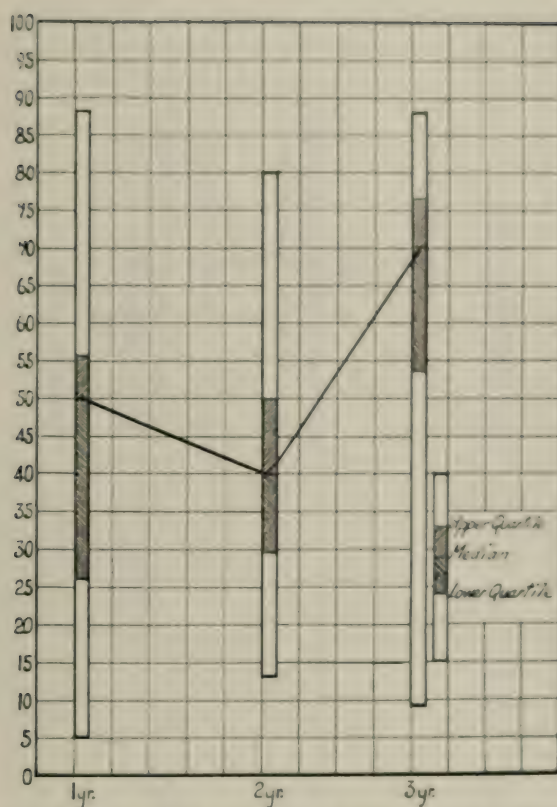


Fig. 29.—English Grammar.—French Normal Schools.—Quebec.

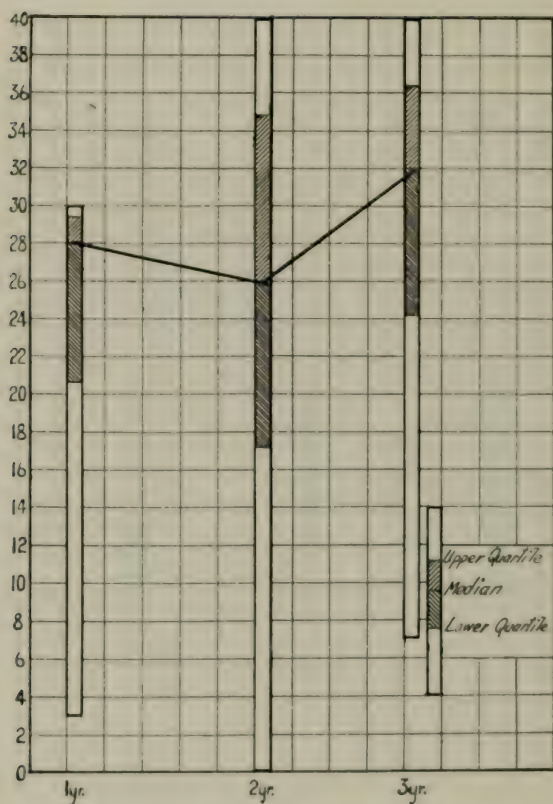


Fig. 30.—English Silent Reading.—French Normal Schools.—Quebec.

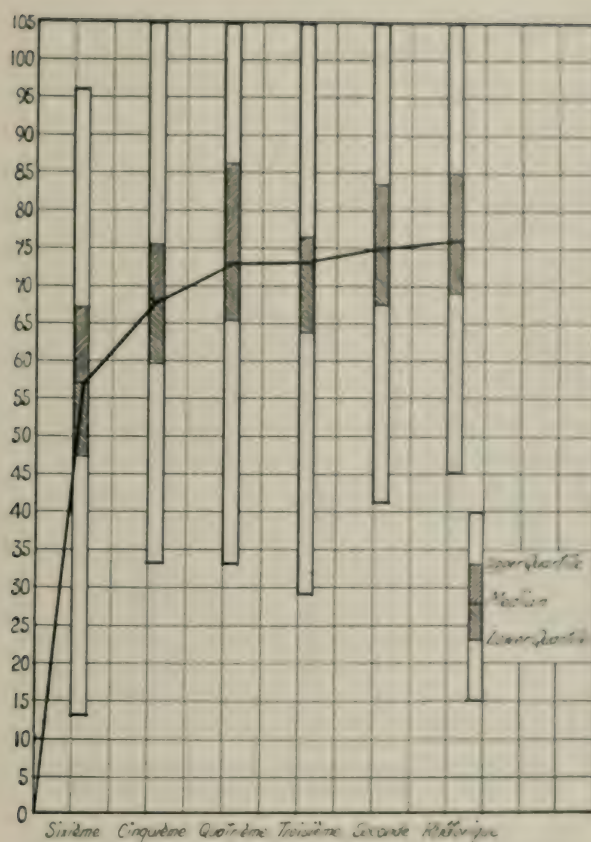


Fig. 31.—English Vocabulary.—Classical Colleges.—Quebec.

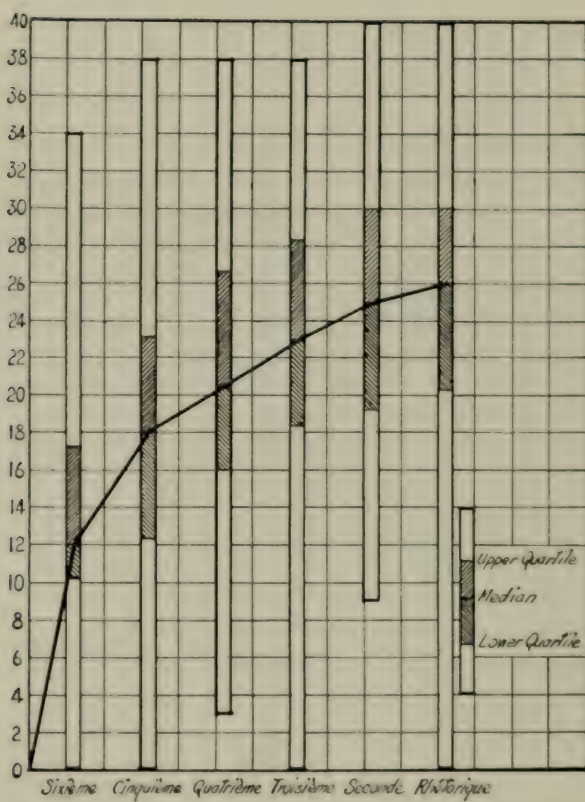


Fig. 32.—English Grammar.—Classical Colleges.—Quebec.

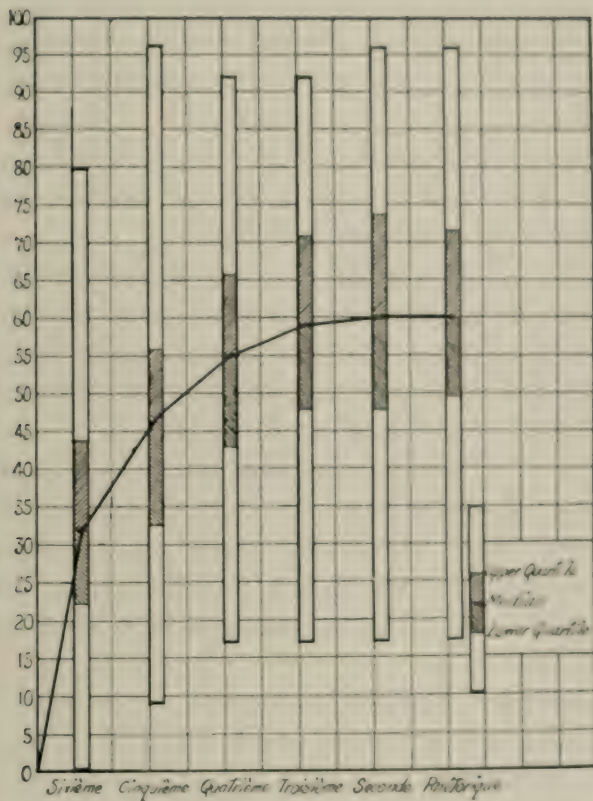


Fig. 33.—English Silent Reading.—Classical Colleges—Quebec.

normal schools, and classical colleges are misplaced by one year, that is, on the basis of objective tests they should be one year behind or one year ahead of their present classification.

In other words 40% of the pupils in primary schools, 60% of the pupils in normal schools, and 63% of the students in classical colleges are poorly classified. It is evident that the upper quarter or upper third in any year reach or exceed the median ability of those classified a year above them, while, on the other hand, the lower quarter or one third fail to reach the median ability of those classified one year below them.

Such lack of uniformity is startling. One fourth to one third of each class is compelled to mark time while the middle fifty per cent. plods along. Another quarter or third of the class is struggling in the rear with tasks they are quite incapable of performing.

The extent of this misclassification in English is much greater than that revealed by French tests in English-speaking schools. It reaches its peak in the normal schools and classical colleges where it is due, partly at least, to the lack of rigid placement examinations in English at entrance.

In the classical colleges no apparent attempt is made to classify pupils at entrance on the basis of their achievement in English and the *classe de sixième*, includes pupils having from one to eight years of English. Pupils entering the normal schools are required to pass an examination on certain subjects of the primary elementary school; but English, although obligatory in the sixth year, is not included among these subjects. Pupils in the first year of the normal school course have had, on an average, 2 years of English, students of the second year, 2.35 years and those of the third year 3.05 years.

The committee's investigator who visited a number of the French schools in the province of Quebec was particularly impressed by the earnestness of the pupils and the excellent results obtained in the majority of cases. One cannot, however, escape the conviction that a rigid classification on the basis of achievement, such as can be secured by the use of objective tests, would result in even more excellent results throughout the whole system.

SCHOOL AND CLASS VARIATIONS

Another outstanding fact made apparent by the results of the testing is the remarkable variation in different schools and classes. Tables 49-51 give class medians for the individual schools that participated in the testing.

All teachers are aware of the fact that individual differences in achievement exist, but the class differences revealed by tables 49 to 51 are startling. For example, in the fifth year of the primary schools we see that one class has a median in vocabulary of 36.9 whereas another class has a median of 68.2. In reading, the same classes vary from 6.9 to 12.4. In the same year we find one class with a grammar median of 10.9 and another with a grammar median of 43.9.

In the first year of the normal school course we find class medians in vocabulary varying from 48.9 to 85; in grammar from 29.9 to 55.5, and in reading from 12 to 26. A study of the table of medians of the classical colleges shows quite as great variations as in the case of primary or normal schools.

It is possible to discover classes that are doing in a year what other classes require two years to accomplish. The folly of attempting to measure language achievement in terms of time spent is shown clearly by the results of these tests. One cannot escape the conclusion that a

TABLE 49
CLASS MEDIANS FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS

	5			6			7			8		
	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.
1.....	48.9	15.9	12.4	69.9	38.9	18.9	61.9	37.9	18.9	73.9	63.9	26.6
2.....	46.9	43.9	10.9	64.5	41.9	10.9	75.9	57.9	14.9	89.3	72.9	23.9
3.....	68.2	34.5	77.3	49.9	22.9	82.5	64.9	24.9	82.9	66.5	27.3
4.....	36.9	10.9	6.9	39.9	12.9	4.6
5.....	49.9	25.9	7.9	56.9	25.9	11.9
6.....	57.9	31.3	12.7

TABLE 50
CLASS MEDIANS FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS

	1			2			3		
	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.
1.....	66.9	50	26	72.9	55	26	73	63	28
2.....	85	55.5	29	68.5	43.9	36	91	76.3	37.5
3.....	48.9	29.9	12	62.6	35.5	16	71.9	40.9	14

TABLE 51
CLASS MEDIANS FOR CLASSICAL COLLEGES

	Six.			Cinq.			Quat.			Trois.			Sec.			Rhet.		
	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.	V.	G.	S.R.
1.....	61.5	38.9	17.7	73	59.9	22.7	67.9	63.5	21.9	80.5	69.9	26.5	73.9	76.9	27.9
2.....	58.6	35.9	11.9	69.9	51.9	19.6	72.9	61.9	23.9	72.9	60.9	21.9	84.5	75.9	30.9	85.9	77.3	30.6
3.....	68.9	48.9	21.9	74.9	61.2	24.9	75.9	64.8	25.3	84.5	75.9	30.9	85.9	77.3	30.6
4.....	70.3	46.3	18.9	64.6	48.5	18.9	74.3	51.9	21.6	72.5	57.9	26.5
5.....	48.6	28.6	9.7	66.6	44.9	10.7	68.8	63.6	20.6	62.9	45.9	18.9	69.5	52.9	17.3	69.6	54.3	19.7
6.....	58.3	31.9	10.3	67.1	43.3	15.9	66.8	52.6	16.9	67.6	57.2	19.7	68.9	53.9	21.5	68.6	58.9	20.9
7.....	58.7	30.7	15.1	66.9	40.9	16.5	86.6	54.9	24.3	79.5	58.5	27.3	75.5	57.9	24.7	77.8	68.3	28.2

uniform standard examination in English would be of great service to the teachers of English in Quebec. A rigid classification according to some subjective test would reduce the amount of overlapping and produce more homogeneous classes with a corresponding improvement in achievement.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE TESTS

The Canadian Committee tests have been used in extensive surveys for the purpose of investigating conditions in modern language teaching, and comparisons between different school systems have been based on the results; questions naturally arise as to the scope and quality of these tests. What dependence can be placed upon the results? How accurate are they as a measure of a pupil's achievement in modern languages?

To answer these questions we must discuss two of the most important qualities of a test, validity and reliability. There is no exact method of determining whether present-day tests sin more against validity or against reliability, but the greater ease with which weaknesses in reliability can be revealed frequently concentrates attention upon this quality rather than upon validity. However, reliability is an aspect of validity, it is that aspect which deals with the accuracy of a test as a measuring instrument. It may be defined as the degree of consistency with which it measures what it actually does measure.

The most direct way to find the reliability or consistency of a test is to administer two equivalent forms of the test to the same students under the same conditions, and then calculate the correlation between the two sets of scores. It is easy to see that if we had an ideal test in two absolutely equivalent forms the student who received 75 on the first form would receive 75 on the second form, the student who received 60 on the first

form would receive 60 on the second form, and so on. This would represent perfect correlation. Even if one form of the test were slightly more difficult than the other, we might still have perfect correlation, provided that the student who received the highest mark on the first form also received the highest mark on the second form, and that the student who stood second on the first form also stood second on the second form—in other words, if the relative order of the students were the same on the two tests. This perfect correlation is represented by 1.00. If there were absolutely no relation between the scores on the two forms the correlation would be zero. Between these two limits we may have relations of varying degree, indicated by such coefficients as .30, .60, .90. In every case a coefficient between 0 and 1.00 indicates some degree of positive association, the degree of association depending on the size of the coefficient. Thus the reliability of a test may be measured in terms of the correlation between the scores on the two forms of the test. This is the reliability coefficient of the test and is known as r_{12} .

The procedure of giving two equivalent forms of a test is often not feasible. Many tests are found in only one form. In this case the same test may be repeated after an interval supposedly great enough to eliminate most of the memory effect and yet not long enough for much true growth in ability to take place. The calculation of the correlation between the two sets of scores gives the reliability of the test. A method more commonly used consists of splitting the test into halves, making up one set of scores on the odd numbered items and another set on the even numbered items, each pupil receiving two scores. The correlation between the two sets of scores is calculated in the usual way and the resulting coefficient,

known as $r_{\frac{1}{2}}$, indicates the reliability of a test one half the length of the original test. Inasmuch as reliability bears a direct and known relation to the length of a test it is possible to calculate the reliability of the whole test by means of the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula.¹

Ruch and Stoddard give, with certain reservations, the following criteria for the interpretation of reliability coefficients:

Reliability

Coefficient

Interpretation

.95-.99	Very high; rarely found among present tests.
.90-.94	High; equalled by a few of the best tests.
.80-.89	Fairly high; fairly adequate for individual measurement.
.70-.79	Rather low; adequate for group measurement but not very satisfactory for individual measurement.
Below .70	Low; entirely inadequate for individual measurement although useful for group averages and school surveys.

Reliability is the stability of the obtained test scores, and is a measure of the confidence which we may place in a test as a measuring device. It must be remembered, however, that the reliability coefficient is a generalized and unanalysed measure which tells little or nothing about the margin of error in the score of an individual pupil.

To quote Kelley:² "The reliability coefficient is, however, not an entirely satisfactory measure of reliability,

¹For a more detailed explanation of the various methods of calculating the reliability of tests and examinations, see Ruch and Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, World Book Co., pp. 355-362.

²Kelley, T. L., *Statistical Method*, pp. 221-223.

for it is affected by the distribution in the trait measured, of the particular group studied. To secure a reliability coefficient of .40 from a group composed of children in a single grade, is probably indicative of greater not less reliability than to secure a reliability coefficient of .90 from a group composed of children from the second to the twelfth grades. If it is reasonable to assume that in terms of true ability the spread of talent is four times as great in the eleven grades as in a single grade the correlation in the second case would need to be .91 in order to indicate as close a relationship as that shown by a reliability coefficient of .40 in the single grade." In view of this inadequacy of the bare reliability coefficient, Ruch and Stoddard recommend that the following facts be given:

"(1) The reliability coefficient together with a designation of the method employed; e.g., repetition of the same form, correlation of chance halves, or correlation of similar forms;

"(2) The standard deviations of the test form or forms (as a measure of the range of talent);

"(3) The mean (average) scores on all forms of the test used. (These are not useful directly for purposes of proving reliability but are valuable as a check on equivalence of forms and for certain other calculations);

"(4) The number of cases used;

"(5) A description of the talent used (range of ages or grades or other data bearing on the representativeness of the sampling)."¹

These data permit the calculation of almost every statistical measure needed for the critical evaluation of tests.

¹Ruch and Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, p. 365.

Among methods of expressing the amount of error present in an individual score two will be discussed here: (a) the probable error of a raw score or the probable error of measurement ($P.E._M$), and (b) the probable error of an estimated true score ($P.E._{\infty.1}$). The raw score on a test is the obtained point-score, that is, the score given the pupil after the correction of the test, and in the Canadian committee's modern language tests indicates the number of items correct. The true score is a hypothetical concept. Scores of individual pupils vary in different forms of a test. This variation is due to the fact that each form is only a sample of the pupil's ability. If an infinite number of tests were given, or if the test were made infinitely long, the error in the individual scores would vanish, because the measurement would be complete and there would be no error due to sampling. Thus the true score becomes the average score on an infinite number of equivalent tests. Kelley has provided a formula¹ for estimating true scores, which are found to differ most from the raw scores at the extremes, the scores near the mean changing very little.

The probable error of a raw score or the probable error of measurement indicates the deviations in any set of raw scores from the corresponding theoretically true scores. For example, in the French vocabulary test the probable error of measurement is 2.06, which means that the chances are even that any individual's true score would not differ from the obtained score by more than this amount. It gives concretely the margin of error in the obtained test scores. The magnitude of the $P.E._M$ assumes significance only when it is compared with the magnitude of the measures from which it is calculated. A $P.E._M$ of 2 represents a much more serious error for a

¹Kelley, T. L., *Statistical Method*, pp. 214-216.

score of 10 than for a score of 40 as in the first case it is 20% of the score while in the second case it is only 5% of the score. A simple method of making this comparison consists in the use of the ratio $\frac{\text{P.E.}_M}{\text{Mean}}$, which expresses the probable error of measurement as a per cent. of the average score of the group of pupils.¹ Thus the P.E._M of the French vocabulary is approximately 5% of the mean score.

The formula for the probable error of a raw score or the probable error of measurement may be stated:

$$\text{P.E.}_M = .6745 \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2}{2} \sqrt{1 - r_{12}}$$

where σ_1 and σ_2 are the standard deviations on the two forms of the test and r_{12} is the reliability coefficient indicating the correlation between forms one and two.

Inasmuch as raw scores are fallible measures and the margin of error is different at different parts of the range, the probable error of a raw score cannot be stated as accurately as the probable error of an estimated true score which is the same for all parts of the range. The probable error of an estimated true score ($\text{P.E.}_{\infty.1}$) is found by the formula:

$$\text{P.E.}_{\infty.1} = .6745 \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2}{2} \sqrt{r_{12} - r_{12}^2}$$

Kelley says: "This formula is very valuable as it enables (one to form) a judgment as to the accuracy of placement."²

In the French vocabulary test the probable error of an estimated true score is 2.00 score points. Since the difference between the means for the successive years

¹Monroe, *Introduction to the Theory of Educational Measurements*, p. 215.

²*Statistical Method*, p. 215.

is approximately 10 score points, we can say that the error of placement or classification by means of this test is about 20% of this difference. In other words, if students are classified by means of this test the chances are even that any individual student will not be misplaced by more than approximately two months. Kelley has suggested that, in comparing the fallibility of tests by means of their probable errors, the following ratio be used: $\frac{P.E._{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$.¹ This expresses the probable error of

an estimated true score as a percentage of the standard deviation, or, in other words, gives its relationship to the range of the test. In this way a comparison can be made between tests scaled to different units. In the interpretation of this ratio, Ruch and Stoddard suggest the following standards:

"Ratios from .10 to .19 are highly satisfactory, indicating a sufficiently reliable test score for individual diagnosis.

"Ratios from .20 to .29 are fairly satisfactory, indicating that the tests have some value for individual diagnosis.

"Ratios from .30 to .39 are not satisfactory for individual diagnosis, but the tests can be used with confidence for purpose of class diagnosis."

In tables 52 to 61 are found data bearing on the reliability of the Canadian committee's modern language tests.²

¹*Statistical Method*, pp. 214-216.

²These tables are abstracted from Henmon, V. A. C., *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. V.

TABLE 52
SHOWING RELIABILITY DATA FOR THE FRENCH TESTS
Vocabulary

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{co-1}	$\frac{P.E._M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E._{co-1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group tested
Form A	34.5	14.45	.95	2.05	2.00	.05	.14	594	H.S. & College
Form B	36.5	12.96							
Form A	28.1	15.36	.92	2.61	2.53	.07	.18	363	1, 3 & 5 semesters College
Form B	40.2	12.33							
Form A	30.6	10.95	.91	2.27	2.16	.07	.19	231	1, 2 & 3 yrs. H.S.
Form B	29.2	11.50							
Form A	21.4	6.63	.80	1.93	1.71	.09	.26	97	1 yr. H.S.
Form B	18.7	6.09							
Form A	31.8	6.84	.81	2.08	1.87	.07	.26	84	2 yrs. H.S.
Form B	30.8	7.32							
Form A	41.3	8.49	.83	2.25	2.06	.05	.25	112	3rd sem. College
Form B	44.8	7.86							
Form A	50.7	9.33	.82	2.47	2.23	.05	.26	92	5th sem. College
Form B	51.7	7.98							

TABLE 53
Grammar

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. M	P.E. $\infty.1$	$\frac{P.E. M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E. \infty.1}{\sigma}$	N	Group tested
Form A	23.1	10.55	.90	2.32	2.21	.10	.20	329	College
Form B	23.2	11.32							
Form A	29.4	9.00	.86	2.37	2.17	.09	.23	214	College
Form B	28.5	9.62							
Form A	25.3	10.45	.89	2.39	2.23	.09	.21	543	College
Form B	25.2	10.97							
Form A	22.4	10.82	.93	2.04	1.91	.09	.17	221	College
Form B	22.4	11.47							

TABLE 54

Silent Reading

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E.M	P.E. $\infty.1$	$\frac{P.E.M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E.\infty.1}{\sigma}$	N	Group tested
Form A	16.2	5.42	.85	1.44	1.33	.10	.24	174	H.S. & 1 yr. College
Form B	13.3	5.67							
Form A	13.4	5.00	.82	1.38	1.34	.11	.26	464	H.S.
Form B	11.6	5.38							
Form A	12.4	4.30	.73	1.59	1.37	.14	.30	213	3rd sem. H.S.
Form B	10.5	4.81							
Form A	12.1	4.96	.77	1.59	1.35	.14	.27	71	4th sem. H.S.
Form B	10.5	4.87							
Form A	16.5	4.64	.90	1.03	.98	.06	.20	59	5th sem. H.S.
Form B	15.1	5.03							
Form A	11.42	5.7	.90	1.21	1.15	.11	.20	315	H.S.

TABLE 55

SHOWING RELIABILITY DATA FOR THE GERMAN TESTS

*Vocabulary*¹

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E.M	P.E. $\infty.1$	$\frac{P.E.M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E.\infty.1}{\sigma}$	N	Group tested
Form A	27.9	15.75	.89	3.51	3.34	.12	.21	180	1st & 2nd yr. H.S.
Form B	30.7	15.87							
Form A	22.5	12.03	.84	3.09	2.83	.09	.24	76	1 yr. H.S.
Form B	24.8	10.89							
Form A	34.6	13.53	.84	3.72	3.39	.10	.24	73	2 yrs. H.S.
Form B	38.9	14.07							
Form A	37.9	13.45	.89	3.00	2.83	.97	.21	102	4 sem. College
Form B	43.4 ¹								

¹One month interval between the administration of Form A and Form B.

TABLE 55—*Continued*

Form A	31.7	11.43	.84	2.97	2.72	.09	.24	234	College
Form B	33.4	10.65							1 sem.
Form A	37.6	11.56	.87	2.75	2.50	.08	.23	253	College
Form B	38.3	10.80							2 sem.
Form A	47.0	14.61	.98	1.28	1.28	.02	.09	77	College
Form B	49.0	12.45							3 sem.
Form A	*52.2	12.78	.95	1.75	1.71	.03	.15	53	College
Form B	53.8	10.38							4 sem.
Form A	39.9	13.95	.94	2.23	2.16	.07	.16	632	College
Form B	39.8	13.11							

TABLE 56

Grammar

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty, 1$}	$\frac{P.E._M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E._{\infty, 1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group
Form A	25.3	7.25	.81	2.13	1.69	.08	.23	123	3rd sem.
Form B	27.5	7.15							College
Form A	20.2	5.02	.43	2.79	1.83	.15	.33	231	1 sem.
Form B	18.8	5.94							College
Form A	24.9	6.82	.63	2.60	2.19	.11	.33	251	2nd sem.
Form B	23.6	6.66							College
Form A	29.1	6.34	.66	2.56	2.11	.09	.32	78	3rd sem.
Form B	28.7	6.66							College
Form A	30.5	5.90	.54	2.48	1.83	.08	.33	54	4th sem.
Form B	29.0	4.94							College
Form A	24.3	6.86	.69	2.69	2.22	.11	.27	606	College
Form B	23.2	7.46							

In the preliminary tryout with 123 third semester college students the reliability coefficient of .81 and a ratio of .23 between the probable error of estimate and the standard deviation gave every reason to believe that when administered to a wider range of talent the coefficient would rise to .90 or over. The subsequent administration to 606 college students in a single institution yielded the disappointing results shown in the table.

TABLE 57

Silent Reading

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty.1$}	$\frac{P.E._M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E._{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group
Form A	16.6	5.96	.84	1.43	1.32	.05	.25	196	1st sem.
Form B	16.8	4.62							College
Form A	20.2	4.08	.79	1.38	1.23	.07	.27	173	2nd sem.
Form B	20.2	4.84							College
Form A	26.5	6.02	.79	1.90	1.68	.07	.27	73	3rd sem.
Form B	27.9	6.24							College
Form A	26.9	3.03	.70	1.05	.87	.04	.30	55	4th sem.
Form B	28.8	2.71							College
Form A	20.8	5.26	.87	1.32	1.24	.06	.23	509	College
Form B	21.2	5.56							

TABLE 58

Composition

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty.1$}	$\frac{P.E._M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{P.E._{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group
Form A	6.57	1.46	.45	.83	.56	.13	.34	137	1st sem.
Form B	6.49	1.85							College
Form A	7.65	1.73	.76	.60	.43	.08	.24	101	2nd sem.
Form B	7.81	1.90							College
Form A	8.34	1.40	.50	.67	.49	.08	.34	74	3rd sem.
Form B	7.64	1.47							College
Form A	8.54	1.82	.73	.71	.56	.09	.30	56	4th sem.
Form B	7.89	1.90							College
Form A	7.48	1.74	.64	.73	.59	.10	.33	395	College
Form B	7.12	1.85							

These represent the raw correlations between a single scorer's ratings of compositions by the Rossberg Composition Scale.

TABLE 59
SHOWING RELIABILITY DATA FOR THE SPANISH TESTS
Vocabulary

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty.1$}	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group
Form A	41.4	15.15	.85	3.47	3.17	.08	.21	364	H.S.
Form B	45.2	14.40							
Form A	26.9	8.25	.86	2.36	2.20	.08	.23	43	1st sem.
Form B	33.2	10.48							H.S.
Form A	32.3	12.12	.84	3.29	3.01	.09	.24	110	2nd sem.
Form B	37.2	12.33							H.S.
Form A	47.7	10.83	.73	3.62	3.06	.08	.29	173	3rd sem.
Form B	48.3	9.84							H.S.

TABLE 60
Grammar

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty.1$}	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group
Form A	18.9	8.37	.85	2.26	2.11	.11	.24	568	H.S.
Form B	21.9	8.94							
Form A	13.4	6.02	.84	1.76	1.61	.12	.24	133	2nd sem.
Form B	15.9	7.02							H.S.
Form A	24.1	8.62	.85	2.33	2.14	.09	.24	49	5th sem.
Form B	28.3	9.18							H.S.

TABLE 61
Silent Reading

	Means	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty.1$}	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_M}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$	N	Group
Form A	16.9	7.64	.89	1.75	1.65	.10	.22	352	H.S.
Form B	17.7	7.96							
Form A	14.6	6.10	.90	1.83	1.64	.12	.27	223	3rd sem.
Form B	14.9	6.08							H.S.

An examination of the tables shows that the tests in the battery meet the accepted standards of reliability of educational test very well for group or class measurement and for individual diagnosis as well. The battery of four tests will have a higher reliability than any of the individual tests and will likely give a reliability coefficient of .94 or .95 and the ratio of the probable error of the estimated true score to the standard deviation will fall well below .20. Hopkins,¹ in a study on prognosis, gave the French and Spanish tests to 1000 pupils and found reliability coefficients for the tests as a whole as follows:

	French	Spanish
Non-Latin pupils96 ± .006	.93 ± .004
Latin pupils92 ± .014	.89 ± .011

The lower coefficients for the Latin pupils are due to the size and variability of the groups. The non-Latin pupils were distributed throughout the four high school years, while the Latin pupils all came from the first two high school years. Hopkins concludes that the tests are very reliable measures of whatever they do measure.

The German grammar test shows disappointingly low reliabilities. Ratios between the probable error of an estimated true score and the standard deviation of .30, and reliability coefficients of .50 and .60 are not satisfactory for individual measurement. Further administration will probably yield more consistent results. The technique of the German grammar test is not the same as that employed in the French and Spanish tests, and does not parallel teaching practice so closely. Nevertheless the Cheydleur French grammar test using the same technique yields satisfactory results. Ruch and Stoddard, in discussing factors affecting reliability, observe that,

¹Hopkins, L. Thomas, *Report on the Reliability of the Wilkins Prognosis Test in Predicting Success in Modern Foreign Languages.*

"Some school subjects appear to behave less reliably in test form than others; e.g., grammar seems to be more refractory than vocabulary, for reasons not entirely understood." The German grammar test gives evidence of this refractoriness.

The Spanish vocabulary test gives much lower reliability coefficients and ratios than the preliminary experiments would have led one to expect. This is partly due to the fact that the administration of the tests for the final determination of equivalence of forms and reliabilities was badly carried out in several of the co-operating schools. The abundant evidence of the reliability of such vocabulary tests in English and in foreign languages gives every reason to expect a reliability coefficient of .90 or higher.

Complete data on the reliability of the composition tests are not yet available. Henmon¹ has shown that the agreement in rating of different judges is very close for the German composition scale, the correlations between the various scorers on 400 compositions running from .85 to .95. Since the correlation in percentage rating is ordinarily about .65 and rarely goes above .75, even in the case of schools and departments, rating by means of the scale materially reduces the subjective element. In addition the scale makes it possible to compare achievements in different schools and departments. The agreement between two samples of composition by the same pupils, which is another matter, seems from the data for German in table 49 to be low, the correlations running from .45 to .75, one college group of 395 students giving a correlation of .64.

Table 62 gives data for the French Composition scale secured from a first year pass class in the University of

¹*Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. III.

Toronto. In March 1927 Form A of the French composition test was administered to the first year pass class at the university. This class is composed of students who have entered with four years of high school French. Approximately two months later the class took the university examination on which they were asked to write two short free compositions, topics assigned being (a) Your plans for the coming summer, (b) your first year at the university.

The March tests were scored by an instructor in the university. The two free compositions two months later were scored by the instructor who set the paper. In scoring these two free compositions, the instructor followed the plan of scoring all the *a* group first, then all the *b* group so that the score in the one composition might not affect his judgment on the second.

The data obtained from the study of the results are found below. The test will be known as *T* and the two compositions on assigned topics as *C*₁ and *C*₂.

TABLE 62

	Median	σ	r_{12}	P.E. _M	P.E. _{$\infty.1$}	$\frac{\text{P.E.}}{\text{Mean}}$	$\frac{\text{P.E.}_{\infty.1}}{\sigma}$	N
<i>T</i>	9.94	1.55	.41	.86	.55	.09	.32	176
<i>C</i> ₁	10.4	1.79						
<i>T</i>	9.98	1.45	.38	.83	.52	.08	.33	172
<i>C</i> ₂	10.13	1.74						
<i>C</i> ₁	10.3	1.52	.76	.50	.43	.05	.28	252
<i>C</i> ₂	9.9	1.5						
<i>T</i>	9.9	1.43	.42	.82	.53	.08	.33	167
Average <i>C</i> ₁ & <i>C</i> ₂ ..	9.8	1.76						

An examination of these figures reveals certain significant facts. In comparing *T* with *C*₁ and *C*₂ we are

putting this method of measurement to the severest test, as we are comparing the results of a composition based upon a picture and scored by one instructor against compositions on assigned topics scored by a different instructor. Yet the critical ratios of .32 and .33 show that the composition scale, even when used under these unsatisfactory circumstances, is valuable for group measurement. The results of comparing T with the average of C_1 and C_2 are about the same, a critical ratio of .33.

The comparison of C_1 with C_2 shows that, with the same instructor scaling two compositions on assigned topics, the scale is quite reliable for group measurement and has some value for individual diagnosis. It shows also the possibility of using the scale for scoring compositions other than those based upon the picture.

The reliability of a test bears a close relation to the length of the test, and, other things being equal, increasing the length of a test increases its reliability. We can thus, within limits, obtain any degree of reliability by increasing the length of the test. Unfortunately administrative difficulties put a limit to the length of the test. Ultimately it is hoped that administrators and teachers will realize the importance of adequate measures of actual achievement in the languages instead of measures in terms of meaningless marks or in terms of time spent in study. An adequate sampling of so complex a matter as ability in a modern language is difficult to secure in eighty minutes, the time allowed for the battery of tests. However, the investigating committee, after mature consideration, decided that in order to secure adequate co-operation from the schools it was necessary to keep within the limits of two class periods. This naturally limited the degree of reliability. To obtain higher re-

liability more time must be given to testing, which, after all, is part and parcel of good teaching. While the co-operation of the schools was extremely good, still many teachers did not give all the tests because of the time required and on the ground that they could not sacrifice the time from teaching. Enabling a pupil to test his own performance against objective comparable standards is one of the most important psychological conditions for improvement. If more time had been given to accurate measurement of achievement, we should not have the bad classification of pupils which now exists and is one of the greatest obstacles to good teaching.

The committee's tests are reliable instruments for group measurement and are fairly adequate for individual diagnosis. A more accurate measure of individual achievement may be obtained by giving both forms of the tests, as in this way the reliability can be considerably increased. It is hoped, however, that experimentation with testing techniques may be continued and that longer and more reliable tests may result.

THE VALIDITY OF THE TESTS

One of the most important questions in connection with the Canadian Committee tests is that of validity, that is, whether they measure what they purport to measure, namely, a pupil's achievement in modern languages. As we have already pointed out (page 782), reliability is one of the most important characteristics of validity. To be highly valid a test must be reliable in the sense that it must give stable and consistent results. High reliability, however, is not sufficient proof of high validity for a test might yield very consistent results and yet not measure what it was designed to measure or what it claims to measure.

Our problem, therefore, is to discover whether the Canadian Committee tests do measure achievement in modern languages.

It must be remembered that validity is not a purely statistical concept like reliability, but is exceedingly complex and includes a wide variety of elements which must be considered separately.

If definite, independent, criterion or criteria existed, the problem would be comparatively simple as the scores on the tests could be correlated with the criteria and validity coefficients could be established. Such criteria, however, do not exist. In a general way the validation of a test consists in the selection of test items of prime importance and in the elimination of items that by experiment have proved to be unimportant or erratic. Ruch and Stoddard state¹ that for the formulation of criteria for educational tests "the prime consideration is the delineation of a set of specific guiding objectives and conditions which the test items must meet to be held valid." The following are the most frequently used methods of validation as stated by Ruch and Stoddard:

- "(1) Textbook analysis.
- "(2) Analysis of courses of study.
- "(3) Analysis of final examination questions.
- "(4) Pooled judgments of competent persons.
- "(5) Use of rating scales in setting up criteria.
- "(6) Correlations with school marks or other measures of school success.
- "(7) Increase in percentage of successes with successive ages or grades.
- "(8) Correlations with previously validated measures.
- "(9) Differential scores shown by two groups known to be widely separated in ability.

¹*Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, p. 304.

“(10) Determination of social utility.

“(11) Logical or psychological analysis.

“(12) Correlations with tests of other intellectual, non-intellectual, or educational abilities.”

In the last analysis the first five of these methods may all be reduced to one, the pooled judgments of competent persons. Text-books, courses of study, and final examinations represent the opinions of one or more supposedly competent judges. Rating scales are simply an attempt to introduce greater accuracy into the individual judgments used as criteria.

Correlations with teachers' marks are frequently used as a method of validation in spite of the fact that teachers' marks are highly variable and unreliable and are, moreover, composite measures of the separate abilities developed in the learning of a language. A large amount of data has been secured on the correlation of test scores with teachers' marks. Although these coefficients must not be regarded as validity coefficients, they are valuable for various purposes and will be reported in some detail. In addition a study has been made of the intercorrelations between the individual tests and also of the correlation with other modern language tests.

1. INTERCORRELATION OF LINGUISTIC ABILITIES

A question of theoretical and practical importance is that of the interrelations between linguistic abilities. To what extent do the various abilities grow up together and what changes take place in them at different stages? For instance, the relationship between knowledge of grammar and ability to read and write a foreign language is one of obvious importance in teaching. Of no less importance is the relation between ability to read and

ability to write a language. If reading a foreign language is the major objective for large numbers of pupils, does training in writing or in grammar contribute to the development of reading power? Of considerable interest, also, is the relationship of vocabulary to other abilities. The vocabulary test has aroused more difference of opinion among teachers than any other test, although some teachers rate it highly. Henmon says: "Just as a vocabulary test in English is the best single measure of general intelligence, so range of vocabulary is probably as good a single index as is obtainable of knowledge of a language."¹

Tables 63 to 66 show the intercorrelations for the tests based on a random sampling from the secondary schools of the United States and Canada.

TABLE 63

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE FRENCH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

	<i>r</i>	N
Vocabulary and Grammar.....	.71	1247
Vocabulary and Silent Reading.....	.78	1207
Vocabulary and Composition.....	.51	1298
Grammar and Silent Reading.....	.75	1185
Grammar and Composition.....	.53	1065
Silent Reading and Composition.....	.48	1319

TABLE 64

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE GERMAN TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

	<i>r</i>	N
Vocabulary and Grammar.....	.65	1483
Vocabulary and Silent Reading.....	.55	1316
Vocabulary and Composition.....	.40	1266
Grammar and Silent Reading.....	.66	1327
Grammar and Composition.....	.46	1354
Silent Reading and Composition.....	.47	1321

¹*Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. V.

TABLE 65
INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE SPANISH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

	<i>r</i>	N
Vocabulary and Grammar.....	.58	1939
Vocabulary and Silent Reading.....	.50	1900
Grammar and Silent Reading.....	.51	1904

TABLE 66
INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE FRENCH TESTS IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

	<i>r</i>	N
Vocabulary and Grammar.....	.78	1411
Vocabulary and Silent Reading.....	.79	1163
Vocabulary and Composition.....	.67	970
Grammar and Silent Reading.....	.79	1385
Grammar and Composition.....	.63	1052
Silent Reading and Composition.....	.70	1138

The intercorrelations, when based on a sampling sufficiently large to be reliable, are fairly high except those for the written composition which are low in French and German for the American schools. In Canadian schools the correlation between composition and the other linguistic abilities is considerably higher, the French tests averaging .67 as against .51 for the American schools. Data on correlations with composition in Spanish are not at present available.

In general, the results of the various studies show that the intercorrelations are high enough to prove that, if any of the tests are valid instruments of measurement, they all are, and yet low enough to indicate that each test makes a unique contribution to the battery.

The correlations already given are based on a sampling from all years of high school work. It is of interest to know the intercorrelations at the different levels in order to determine whether these tend to increase or decrease at different stages and whether the different abilities

differ in this respect. These correlations will also show us what effect, if any, the narrower range of talent has on the size of the correlations.

Tables 67 to 70 give data for the intercorrelations at the different levels.

TABLE 67¹

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR SIX SEMESTERS OF FRENCH IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Semesters	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Vocabulary and Grammar..... <i>r</i>	.38	.44	.50	.55	.76	.48
No. of cases	207	121	173	271	151	324
Vocabulary and Silent Reading..... <i>r</i>	.49	.56	.57	.50	.69	.49
No. of cases	206	118	169	256	150	315
Vocabulary and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.32	.46	.36	.31	.27	.31
No. of cases	207	113	168	348	151	309
Grammar and Silent Reading..... <i>r</i>	.48	.52	.47	.54	.62	.47
No. of cases	175	114	170	253	152	315
Grammar and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.14	.55	.51	.31	.32	.28
No. of cases	206	112	169	356	151	312
Silent Reading and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.25	.59	.40	.30	.21	.18
No. of cases	209	107	369	369	151	314

TABLE 68

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR FIVE YEARS OF FRENCH IN CANADIAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Year.....	I	II	III	IV	V
Vocabulary and Grammar.....	.40	.65	.54	.57	.51
No. of cases	851	1450	935	491	186
Vocabulary and Silent Reading.....	.36	.47	.52	.41	.28
No. of cases	758	1380	926	437	180
Vocabulary and Composition.....	.10	.34	.32	.46	.30
No. of cases	878	1262	790	411	193
Grammar and Silent Reading.....	.40	.83	.49	.41	.32
No. of cases	797	1409	893	458	184
Grammar and Composition.....	.23	.41	.40	.55	.48
No. of cases	893	1218	748	401	184
Composition and Silent Reading.....	.29	.33	.21	.36	.19
No. of cases	778	1115	718	377	177

¹All tables containing data from American schools are abstracted from Henmon, V. A. C., *Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*.

TABLE 69

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR FOUR SEMESTERS OF GERMAN IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Semesters	I	II	III	IV
Vocabulary and Grammar..... <i>r</i>	.81	.45	.66	.73
No. of cases.....	226	481	372	404
Vocabulary and Silent Reading..... <i>r</i>	.70	.41	.57	.70
No. of cases.....	166	457	329	364
Vocabulary and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.39	.47	.35	.48
No. of cases.....	150	422	156	376
Grammar and Silent Reading..... <i>r</i>	.58	.65	.65	.70
No. of cases.....	164	457	322	384
Grammar and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.47	.47	.40	.55
No. of cases.....	150	444	323	379
Silent Reading and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.39	.53	.47	.46
No. of cases.....	150	461	339	371

TABLE 70

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR SEVEN SEMESTERS OF SPANISH IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Semesters	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Vocabulary and Grammar... <i>r</i>	.53	.38	.39	.59	.62	.46	.70
No. of cases.....	257	327	563	232	268	235	87
Vocabulary and Silent							
Reading..... <i>r</i>	.63	.39	.85	.47	.67	.59	.50
No. of cases.....	242	317	538	225	255	232	91
Grammar and Silent Reading <i>r</i>	.75	.51	.60	.53	.57	.39	.64
No. of cases.....	238	317	546	225	256	231	91

The results shown in these tables are not easy to interpret. Pupils studying a foreign language are, from year to year, approaching the goal of perfection in this language. One might expect that increased study of the language would bring about a consolidation or levelling of abilities. If this were so the coefficients would show a tendency to increase. While this tendency is shown to a very slight degree there are inexplicable fluctuations.

An examination of these fluctuations in tables 67 and 68 shows an astonishing similarity. In almost every case

the coefficients are low in the first year. They rise slightly in the next year and then show a tendency to drop. The correlations for the fifth year French in Canadian schools are in every case lower than for the fourth year. The same is true in the case of the sixth and fifth semester French of the American high schools.

The correlations for German and Spanish show much the same irregularity. The variations in objectives, curricula and methods, and the variations in emphasis at different levels with differing methods, are so marked in modern languages that pooling the results from schools and classes distributed throughout the country tends to obscure the relationships that might appear in a single class or in a school system where uniform curricula and methods prevail.

In order to discover the relationships in a single school where methods and curricula are fairly uniform, inter-correlations were computed in such a school for four, six and eight semester classes in French. This school is characterized by uniformly high standards and a rigorous selection and elimination of pupils. Its standing in vocabulary, grammar and silent reading is very high, but relatively low in composition.

TABLE 71

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR A SINGLE HIGH SCHOOL FOR THE FRENCH TESTS

Semesters.....	IV	VI	VIII
No. of cases.....	121	91	74
Vocabulary and Grammar..... <i>r</i>	.31	.43	.47
Vocabulary and Silent Reading..... <i>r</i>	.34	.41	.36
Vocabulary and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.11	.20	.30
Grammar and Silent Reading..... <i>r</i>	.43	.41	.36
Grammar and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.03	.31	.09
Silent Reading and Composition..... <i>r</i>	.13	.16	.19

The relatively low correlations are due to the homogeneous character of the classes, and are an approximation

to the lowest limit of relationships between the abilities. While there is a tendency for the intercorrelations to increase, this tendency is obscured by the rigorous selection and narrowing of the range of variation in the sixth and eighth semesters.

Even without experimental evidence it could safely be asserted that there must be a positive correlation between various linguistic abilities. Just how close the relationships are only a detailed analysis can show. The problem is not one of merely academic interest, for the intercorrelations between various linguistic abilities can give guidance in the matter of allotment of time and distribution of practice. If, for example, the correlation between grammar and silent reading is high, one would be justified in emphasizing grammar in a class where the main objective is reading ability. If, on the contrary, the correlation is low such emphasis would be wasted. A study of these relationships under different methods and conditions and at different levels of progress is worthy of serious consideration. Such a study has now been made possible by the construction of modern language tests.

Pooling the results obtained from a great variety of schools with astonishing differences in achievement does not permit of the analysis suggested. It does prove, however, that the intercorrelations are high enough to show the validity of each of the tests if any are valid and low enough to justify the inclusion of them all.

2. CORRELATIONS WITH TEACHERS' MARKS

The use of school marks in the validation of tests is one of the most common practices. Within certain limits they form an excellent criterion. It is clear that a valid

test in French or German should correlate fairly closely with the final marks obtained in the high school courses. School marks undoubtedly have considerable validity, but not as much can be said for their reliability. Considerable experimental evidence indicates that the reliability of term marks or grades in high school ranges between .50 and .75.

In using marks as a criterion for determining the validity of a test the usual procedure is to correlate test scores and marks. Such correlations are never high. It can easily be shown that, if school marks have a reliability of .50 to .75, the highest possible correlation of a reliable test with such marks cannot exceed .70 to .85.¹

TABLE 72

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND THE FRENCH TESTS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Semesters	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Vocabulary	.27	.33	.39	.44	.38	.36
Grammar	.64	.50	.45	.53	.44	.40
Silent Reading	.34	.41	.38	.35	.32	.21
Composition	.21	.31	.33	.10	.07	.07
No. of cases	203	119	174	352	143	294

TABLE 73

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND THE FRENCH TESTS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS

Years	34	115	254	334	444
Vocabulary	.16	.22	.31	.40	.51
No. of cases	193	928	1136	982	630
Grammar	.25	.37	.47	.51	.61
No. of cases	213	1017	1170	1022	654
Silent Reading	.07	.31	.43	.40	.55
No. of cases	208	795	1011	919	655
Composition	.53	.38	.36	.32	.47
No. of cases	165	916	1092	971	692

¹Ruch and Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, p. 318.

TABLE 74

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND FRENCH TESTS IN
CANADIAN SCHOOLS

Years.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Vocabulary.....	.34	.35	.53	.57	.63
No. of cases.....	405	826	488	166	91
Grammar.....	.57	.37	.67	.67	.83
No. of cases.....	401	829	495	170	94
Silent Reading.....	.55	.41	.65	.60	.47
No. of cases.....	395	808	469	163	94
Composition.....	.43	.42	.38	.61	.50
No. of cases.....	403	738	338	100	90

Teachers in whose classes tests were administered were asked to record the school marks obtained by the pupils. A large number of teachers complied with the request and correlations with these marks have been calculated. The following tables contain the results of this calculation.

In the case of the correlations with marks in the American schools (table 72) a system of weighting the marks was used because of the wide variation in standards of marking. The average of the marks given by each teacher was computed and the median average for each semester was used as a basis for weighting. A numerical constant was added to or subtracted from each pupil's mark in each class according to the deviation of his class average from the standard adopted. Thus, if teachers A, B and C gave average marks of 80, 75, and 70, respectively, 75 was used as a basis for weighting and five points subtracted from each of the marks of teacher A and five points added to each of the marks given by teacher C. Whether this system of weighting has accomplished the purpose intended, namely, the elimination of constant errors due to varying standards, is highly problematical. In the correlations for the English and Canadian schools no such system of weighting was used,

and yet the correlations are almost invariably higher than for the American schools. Table 75 gives comparative figures for the four tests.

TABLE 75

INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN FRENCH TESTS AND TEACHERS' MARKS FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS AT THE THREE YEAR LEVEL AND FOR ENGLISH AND CANADIAN SCHOOLS AT THE THREE AND A HALF YEAR LEVEL

	American schools	English schools	Canadian schools
Vocabulary.....	36	40	57
Grammar.....	40	51	67
Silent Reading.....	21	40	60
Composition.....	07	32	61
Average.....	.28	.41	.61

These differences are hard to explain. The higher correlations in the Canadian system may be due to a more uniform system of marking, in which case the system of weighting used in the American correlations seems to have failed to eliminate the errors due to varying standards. Another possibility is that the tests are a more valid measure of achievement in Canadian schools than they are in American or English schools. It must be noted that the majority of teachers' marks used in the Canadian correlations come from Ontario schools, where the marks are based on a series of term examinations and are used as a check on matriculation examinations. For this reason the higher correlations in Canadian schools are probably due to a more uniform system.

Tables 72 to 74 are highly significant regarding the factors which do or do not determine marks. In the first place, the correlations between scores in grammar are markedly and uniformly higher than between marks and the other three linguistic abilities. It is clear that the traditional emphasis upon grammar is strong. Knowledge

of grammar is more easily estimated or measured and it serves as a basis of marking. In all probability the notion prevails that knowledge of grammar is an adequate index of the ability to read and write a foreign language. While the correlations between grammar and other linguistic abilities are fairly high they are not high enough to make grammar a perfect index of achievement. In the second place, the correlations in the English and Canadian schools show that vocabulary plays an increasingly significant role in the determination of teachers' marks. In the third place, the correlations between teachers' marks and ability in composition are noticeably lower than the other correlations. Henmon suggests that "this may be due to the fact that ability to write French plays a small role in determining teachers' estimates, or to the fact that the rating of compositions by the composition scale is less objective and less reliable than scores in the other tests."¹ In view of the very much higher correlations for composition found in both English and Canadian schools, but especially in Canadian schools, it seems that the low correlation is due to the small part that composition plays in determining teachers' marks in American schools rather than to the lower reliability of the rating scales.

Lastly, Henmon notes that the correlations for American schools between the teachers' marks and all four abilities show a general tendency to decrease after the fourth semester, and suggests that this may be due "to the fact that other factors than the elementary linguistic abilities measured by the tests enter in to affect the marks, or that the tests have less reliability in the upper levels." For the English and Canadian schools, however, these correlations show a decided increase from year to year.

¹*Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. V.

The English schools show a decrease for composition only. The Canadian schools show a decrease at the four and a half year level for silent reading and composition, but the remarkable increase in the correlations at this level both for vocabulary and grammar lead one to believe that they are the determining factors in teachers' marks in the fifth year high school work, and that they tend to obscure the other abilities as far as teachers' marks are concerned. The fifth year results were obtained from Ontario schools, and a correlation of .83 between teachers' marks and scores on the grammar test as against correlations of .63, .47 and .50 for the other abilities indicates the undue importance given to grammar in determining teachers' marks in Ontario schools.

In order to eliminate errors due to varying standards of marking and errors due to any plan of weighting marks, correlations were determined for a number of individual schools. Table 76 gives the correlations for three American schools. In school A the system of marking made it possible to combine several classes without weighting the marks. In schools B and C the correlations are determined for single classes.

TABLE 76

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND TESTS FOR THREE AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Semester.....	School A			School B			
	IV	VI	VIII	I	II	III	IV
Vocabulary.....	.31	.43	.53	.20	.42	.42	.42
Grammar.....	.57	.54	.63	.39	.67	.76	.52
Silent Reading.....	.31	.36	.12	.28	.58	.47	.59
Composition.....	.12	.04	.06				
No. of cases.....	121	99	35	25	25	25	25

Semester	School C						
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VIII
Vocabulary07	.13	.44	.50	.51	.46	.72
Grammar41	.64	.79	.71	.61	.31	.63
Silent Reading34	.62	.61	.73	.40	.18	.34
No. of cases	25	24	25	25	25	25	24

The correlations were also determined for one English school and one Canadian school.

TABLE 77

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND TESTS FOR ONE ENGLISH SCHOOL

Year	II	III	IV	V
Vocabulary28	.15	.42	.79
No. of cases	33	55	73	41
Grammar34	.80	.43	.71
No. of cases	57	32	74	41
Silent Reading44	.49	.44	.74
No. of cases	32	55	72	38
Composition33	.61	.47	.72
No. of cases	56	32	74	39

TABLE 78

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND TESTS FOR ONE CANADIAN SCHOOL

Year	II	III	IV	V
Vocabulary37	.59	.55	.63
No. of cases	79	87	52	91
Grammar66	.71	.74	.83
No. of cases	80	93	55	94
Silent Reading59	.70	.48	.47
No. of cases	81	86	52	94
Composition48	.57	.64	.50
No. of cases	79	86	27	90

The general tendencies observed in the previous tables are confirmed by the results obtained from these individual schools. The three American schools still show a marked decrease in the correlations for composition.

A similar but slighter decrease is found in the Canadian school for both composition and reading in the fourth year. In all these schools there is a marked tendency toward an increase in vocabulary correlations. It seems to affect teachers' marks more and more. In the case of the English school a remarkable feature is the equal part played by the different linguistic abilities in the determination of teachers' estimates. Grammar does not seem to hold the preponderant position that it does in the three American schools and the one Canadian school. In spite of some slight irregularities, due probably to the small number of cases, the correlations, as a whole, tend to increase in the upper years. If teachers' marks are a valid criterion then the tests show a higher validity for the upper levels.

In German a very limited amount of data for correlations with marks is available. The results for six classes in four different schools are given in table 79.

TABLE 79¹

School.....	A	B	A	C	C	D
Semesters.....	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Vocabulary.....	.02	.39	.49	.31	.53	.62
Grammar.....	.24	.64	.75	.52	.29	.73
Silent Reading.....	.26	.71	.44	.70	.67	.70
Composition.....	.46	.49	.48	.66	.19	.11
No. of cases.....	26	20	29	25	26	25

In spite of irregularities due to the small number of cases as well as to the sampling of different schools and classes, the same general tendencies are shown as in the more detailed study of the French tests. Grammar is the dominant factor in determining marks, but less conspicuously so than in French. The vocabulary test shows

¹Henmon, V. A. C., *Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. V.

higher correlations from year to year. A noticeable characteristic is the higher correlations shown for silent reading and composition for these classes, although in the fifth and sixth semesters the correlations for composition show the same tendency to decrease as was found for French composition.

Correlations with teachers' marks for the Spanish test are not at present available.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' MARKS AND AVERAGE PERCENTILE RANK IN THE TESTS. PARTIAL CORRELATIONS¹

The correlations reported so far have been in terms of the individual tests. These correlations are all positive and high enough to indicate that each test measures something that is included in the teachers' marks. It is a matter of interest to determine what correlation may be expected between teachers' marks and the average score for the four tests. Since the tests vary greatly in the number of items, the scores were converted, as is recommended in the manuals of directions, into percentile ranks, and the average was taken as the composite score. Correlations between teachers' marks and the composite percentile ranks or score in the French tests have been determined for the data from school A, table 76.

TABLE 80

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN COMPOSITE PERCENTILE RANKS AND TEACHERS' MARKS

Semesters	IV	VI	VIII
<i>r</i>60	.71	.58
No. of cases	109	91	33

¹A more complete and more detailed discussion of partial correlations, regression equations and multiple correlations for scores in the tests and teachers' marks will be found in Henmon, V. A. C., *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. V.

Considering the limited range and the small number of cases these correlations are high.

Given the raw correlations between marks and the individual tests and the intercorrelations between the several tests, we can determine the partial correlations which indicate the net relationship between two sets of scores when the influence of one or more factors is kept constant or eliminated.

Thus in American schools the correlation in the first semester French between marks and vocabulary is .27, between marks and grammar .64, between marks and reading .34, which would seem to show that whereas the correlations between marks and vocabulary, and between marks and silent reading are low, there is an appreciable positive relationship. When, however, the partial correlations are determined, keeping grammar constant or eliminating its influence, the correlation between vocabulary and marks drops to .04, between reading and marks to .05, or, in other words, is negligible. The correlation between grammar and marks with vocabulary constant is .60, and with reading constant is .58. For first semester French in American schools grammar is obviously the dominant factor in determining teachers' marks.

3. CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER MODERN LANGUAGE TESTS

There are now four batteries of tests in modern languages: the Canadian Committee tests (the American Council Alpha Tests), the American Council Beta Tests, the Iowa Placement Examinations in French and Spanish, and the Columbia Research Bureau tests. They are all of such recent origin that few comparative data are

available. The only data at hand are the correlations reported by Professor G. O. Stoddard between the American Council Alpha tests, form A, and the Iowa Placement Examinations, French Training, form B, Revised. Correlations were computed for 157 students at the State University of Iowa. The results were as follows:

	<i>r</i>
Alpha French, Total Score, vs. Iowa Placement, Total Scores.....	.80
Alpha French Vocabulary and Grammar vs. Iowa Placement, Total Scores.....	.76
Alpha French Silent Reading vs. Iowa Placement, Total Scores.....	.71
Alpha French Grammar vs. Iowa Grammar, Part 2.....	.77
Alpha French Grammar vs. Iowa Grammar, Part 2.....	.72
Alpha French Vocabulary vs. Iowa Vocabulary.....	.63
Alpha French Vocabulary and Grammar vs. Iowa Vocabulary and Grammar.....	.77

These correlations are very high, higher even than the reliabilities of either test would lead one to expect in a limited range of talent. They indicate that both tests measure much the same abilities, and that if one battery is a valid measure the other is also.

In conclusion, the following reasons can be given for assuming that the Canadian Committee tests possess a very high degree of validity:

1. Standard procedures have been followed in the validation of the tests: the analysis of reading material for vocabularies and paragraphs, the analysis of current texts and courses of study, the selection of items on a basis of preliminary trials, or on the basis of a consensus of teachers' judgments.

2. The opinion of competent teachers is that the tests do reflect current practices and contain a valid sampling of abilities.

3. The scores on the tests increase steadily and uniformly with increasing length of contact with the foreign language.

4. The intercorrelations between the tests are high enough to show that if any of the tests are valid they all are, and low enough to justify the inclusion of them all.

5. If teachers' marks are a valid criterion then the grammar test possesses a high degree of validity and the vocabulary test a validity which becomes more significant at the higher levels. The intercorrelations prove that if these two tests are valid then the other tests are also.

6. Intercorrelations with other batteries of modern language tests are high so far as they have been computed.

COMPARISON OF RELIABILITIES OF TESTS WITH RELIABILITY OF OLD TYPE EXAMINATIONS

Ruch and Stoddard state that "The three principal functions of examinations centre about (a) measurement, (b) motivation, and (c) training in the use of the English language. The order of stating these purposes is thought to be the order of importance by the authors."

The traditional examination has been most frequently attacked on the ground of measurement. It has been shown to be highly unreliable for two main reasons:

- (1) The subjectivity of scoring;
- (2) The limited sampling permitted by a 5 or 10 question examination.

Ruch and Stoddard have shown¹ correlation coefficients ranging from zero to .99 between the results obtained from different teachers reading the same examination, with an average correlation of about .62. Where different teachers read different examinations from the same pupils the correlations run even lower, averaging about .38.

Wood² provides significant comparative data on the reliabilities of the old type and new type modern language tests in the New York Regents experiment. In June, 1925, the three-hour periods of the New York Regents examinations in French, Spanish, German, and Physics were equally divided between the old and new type

¹Ruch and Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, p. 261.

²Wood, Ben D., *New York Experiments with New Type Modern Language Tests*. Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. I, pp. 113-122.

forms of questions. The old type subjectively scored examinations were given during the first ninety minutes, and the objective tests during the second. The old type parts of the examinations were of the same nature as the Regents examinations except that they were shorter. They were constructed, edited, printed, administered, read and reviewed in the regular way.

The new type tests in French, Spanish, and German, each consisted of three parts: a vocabulary test of the multiple choice type, comprehension of the true-false type, and grammar, of the completion type.

A fundamental difference must be noted between the two types. The old type Regents examinations in each language included three separate examinations, one for each year examined. For the new type examination there was only one examination for all the years in each language.

At first some doubt existed as to the possibility of one ninety-minute examination measuring adequately the achievement of students in second, third and fourth year modern language classes. Wood has shown not only that the one examination can measure the whole range of achievement of modern language work in the high school but can measure it more accurately than three old type examinations. He points out several reasons for this, but two only will be mentioned here. First, the foreign language material used in the new type examination is carefully selected on the basis of objective data, such as word counts, inventories of grammars, etc., and these materials are further checked by experimental evidence. Secondly, the questions are set up in such a form that fully ninety per cent. of the irrelevant activities of the old type examinations are eliminated, thus making possible much larger samplings of foreign language

material and of performances of the pupils than in the old type.

Space is lacking here for a complete discussion of the findings of this experiment but one or two of the principal points may be mentioned.

As concerns reliability, the highest coefficient of the new type examination based on returns for a single class was found to be .955 as against .788 for the old type. The average for the new type was .94 as against .70 for the old. The reliability of each of the new type modern language examinations when based on returns from the second, third and fourth year taken together was above .96.

The lowest reliability for one part of the new type test taking 45 minutes is .06 higher than the highest reliability obtained for a ninety-minute old type examination. Wood's general conclusions are "that the new type examinations are roughly twice as reliable and valid as the old type examinations of equal time allowance; that the new type examinations afford comparable measures for all classes in a given subject matter in the same and in different years, and thus offer a means of eliminating overlapping of classes and variations in local school standards to a much greater extent than they are eliminated by the old type Regents examinations; and that the new type tests over a series of years will cost not more than 10% as much as old type examinations, as administered and read by the College Entrance Examination Board, cost."

The Canadian Committee undertook to obtain data on the problem of relative reliabilities by a comparison of the results from the tests with the results of the Ontario matriculation examinations. It was planned to administer the four French tests to about 1000 middle

school pupils and 500 upper school pupils. It was hoped that this administration might be carried out late in May in order to bring it as close as possible to the matriculation examinations. Unfortunately at this period of the year the approaching examinations bulk so large in the minds of both teachers and pupils that the committee was not able in every case to obtain the co-operation hoped for. In the first place it was found impossible to have the tests administered after the first week in May. There is a gap of about six weeks, therefore, between the tests and the examinations. Secondly, at this time of year teachers objected very strongly to devoting three class periods to testing. In order to keep the time within two class-periods the test in free composition was, therefore, omitted. In other words, one of the most important tests of the battery was not included.

The number of cases secured was not as large as had been planned, being reduced through one cause and another to approximately 500 for the middle school and 225 for the upper school.

In order to make comparison possible the department of education furnished the committee with the marks of each of these pupils on the two middle school or two upper school examinations. The department also supplied the confidential mark assigned to the various pupils by the teachers. In order that the comparison might be made completely anonymous both as regard pupils and schools the committee sent the department the list of pupils who took the tests, together with their scores on the tests. The department inserted the marks for the examinations, after which they replaced the pupils' names by numbers. In this way the identity of individual pupils and their schools was concealed and the anonymity desired by the department preserved.

The examinations in this experiment were the regular Ontario matriculation examinations written in June, 1926, consisting of two papers, two hours and a half in length for the middle school and the same number of papers of the same length for the upper school. One of these papers, called "Authors, Grammar and Sight Translation," contains translation from prescribed texts, grammatical questions of the functional type and sight translation. The other paper, known as "Composition," consists of a number of English sentences to be translated into French, followed by one or two short English extracts, based upon the French texts read, to be translated into French. The middle school paper also contains ten short verb phrases for translation into French. It is a typical translation paper from English into French just as "Authors" is a translation paper from French into English.

The most careful supervision is given to the making of the papers. They undergo a number of revisions before they are passed by the final revising board, which contains teachers from all departments. It is doubtful if any set of college entrance examinations receives more care in the making. A close study of these papers for the last five or six years indicates that they are exceedingly comprehensive from the standpoint of range of vocabulary and grammatical points within the syllabus laid down for the schools. It must be remembered, however, that the examinations are kept rigidly within the limits of the syllabus.

The reading of the papers also has been standardized to such a degree that subjectivity of scoring has a very small place in the results. In addition, all papers within a certain margin of the passing mark are re-read by the examiner-in-chief or such of the more experienced readers

as he may designate. This all tends to produce a high reliability as compared with the ordinary college entrance examination. The comparative reliabilities of examinations and the tests are given in table 81.

TABLE 81

SHOWING COMPARATIVE RELIABILITIES OF ONTARIO MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS AND THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE FRENCH TESTS

Examinations	r_{11}	r_{12}	Mdn	σ	P.E. _M	$\frac{P.E._M}{\text{Mean}}$	P.E. _{m.1}	$\frac{P.E._{m.1}}{\sigma}$	No. of cases
M.S. Composition...	.90	.95	51.3	16.45	2.47	.048	2.31	.140	517
M.S. Authors.....	.76	.86	60.05	15.75	3.97	.065	3.68	.234	473
U.S. Composition...	.90	.95	55.95	15.25	2.29	.041	2.24	.147	227
U.S. Authors.....	.69	.82	66.3	10.9	3.12	.047	2.82	.256	226
Tests									
M.S. Vocabulary ..		.92	38.1	7.9	1.5	.039	1.44	.182	521
M.S. Grammar.....		.93	22.7	8.9	1.58	.060	1.53	.172	501
M.S. Silent Reading		.85	12	4.02	1.04	.086	.97	.241	455
U.S. Vocabulary.....		.92	47.6	7.85	1.49	.031	1.43	.182	214
U.S. Grammar.....		.93	28.2	8.5	1.51	.053	1.46	.173	212
U.S. Silent Reading		.85	15.84	3.78	.97	.061	.91	.240	217

M.S. = Middle School, Four Years.

U.S. = Upper School, Five Years.

The reliability of the examinations was obtained by splitting each examination into halves and calculating the reliability coefficient for one half the examination, $r_{\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}}$. Then by the use of the Spearman-Brown formula the reliability coefficient of the whole examination was determined, r_{12} . Wood points out that "there is some evidence that this formula overestimates the reliability of old type subjective examinations." In determining the reliability of the examinations it was impossible to obtain the individual papers of the students concerned in this experiment, so that it was necessary to use the reliability coefficient determined at the time the examinations were

scored. These were obtained by sampling. In the case of the middle school every twentieth paper was used and in the upper school every tenth paper. Inasmuch as the distribution of marks in the papers used covered approximately the same range as the whole examination it is felt that these coefficients represent a random sample.

In the case of the tests the reliability coefficients are based on correlations between forms A and B. The ordinary old type examination rarely shows as high a reliability as is indicated in these matriculation examinations. The reliability coefficients usually range from .60 to .75, and rarely go above .80. It will be remembered that the highest reliability obtained by Wood for the Regents French examination (page 820) was .79 and his coefficients ran as low as .42. The writer determined the reliability of a university second year linguistic paper set by himself and obtained a reliability coefficient of .79. This examination contained some features of the tests, and the writer had continually in mind the question of reliability.

All of which goes to show that as instruments of measurement of whatever they do measure, the Ontario matriculation examinations rank very high. As instruments of placement their P.E._M is on an average approximately five per cent. of the average score. Using the most significant index of reliability, the ratio of the probable error of estimated true scores to the standard deviation, and judging the examinations by the standards suggested by Ruch and Stoddard (page 788), we see that the Composition examination with a ratio .14 is highly satisfactory for individual measurement, and the Authors examination with a ratio of .24 is satisfactory for group measurement and possesses some value for individual measurement.

This high reliability in the Ontario matriculation is due to a number of causes. In the first place the extremely careful supervision of the examinations in the making and the rigidly standardized method of marking the papers reduce the subjectivity of the examination. Secondly, the rigid restriction of the examination to the limits of the prescribed grammar and texts renders possible a very wide sampling of the material within this field.

The examination, as a whole, would probably give a reliability of .90 with a critical ratio of approximately .20. It must be remembered that this would be an examination of 5 hours or 300 minutes. In comparing the examinations with the tests on the basis of the ratio of the probable error of the estimated true scores to the standard deviation, we see that the tests which take from one tenth to one fifth the time have a reliability almost as high as the matriculation examinations. Henmon¹ states that the reliability of the battery of four tests will likely rise to .94 or .95, and the ratio of the probable error of the estimated true scores to the standard individual deviation will fall well below .20. Comparing these figures with those cited above for the examination we are led to the conclusion that the battery of tests will give as reliable results as two matriculation examinations requiring approximately four times as much time. Doubling the length of the tests would increase their reliability to at least .96 and reduce the ratio of the probable error of estimated true scores to the standard deviation of the distributions to .13, and still the time required for the three tests would be only half the time of the matriculation examinations.

¹Henmon, V. A. C., *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, chap. V.

In order to have some check on the validity of the matriculation examinations and the tests the average percentile rank on the tests and the average of the examinations were correlated with each other and with the teachers' marks. Table 82 contains the results of these correlations.

TABLE 82

	Examinations	N	Teachers' Marks	N
U.S. Tests.....	.75	167	.68	165
U.S. Examinations.....			.69	216
M.S. Tests.....	.76	295	.58	295
M.S. Examinations.....			.77	433

Let us examine first the correlations between the tests and the examinations. It speaks well for the tests that the average of their scores should correlate as high as .75 and .76 with an old, tried, and thoroughly reliable examination, of four times their length. One must remember, too, that the examinations, strictly speaking, measure ability to translate, and measure ability to understand and to write French only in so far as these abilities correlate with the ability to translate. Now the ability to translate is a very complex function, being based on the knowledge of both languages. The result is that a score based on a translation paper has a twofold character. It represents the student's ability to comprehend one language and to express himself in another. We are never sure what proportions of the two abilities are represented in the score.

With the tests, on the contrary, we measure comprehension of the French in the natural way, that is, we ask the pupil questions about it, permitting him to give the answers in his own language, which is his natural

means of expression. The ability to write his own language need hardly be considered because the answers are so short and simple that all students are on an equal footing. In the composition test the pupil writes French, and no question of the comprehension of English is involved as in the case of the translation of English into French. We can say, therefore, that, in view of the fact that the tests and the examinations measure, not absolutely the same abilities but related abilities, the correlation coefficients of .75 and .76 between the results are as high as can be expected. It is to be noted that in only one case did the correlation between the New York Regents new type examinations and old type examinations run as high as .75 or .76. Wood found the correlation in third year German to be .756. In the other cases the correlation ranged from .58 to .72.

As we have already assumed that agreement with teachers' marks is a certain proof of validity, let us examine the tests and the examinations on the basis of their correlation with teachers' marks. It must be remembered, too, that in this comparison all the conditions favour the matriculation examinations. They are based most rigidly on the prescribed grammar and texts used in the class-room. Teachers' marks are determined on a basis of individual judgment aided by a series of term examinations of the same general type as the matriculation examinations. In many cases, indeed, parts of old matriculation papers are used for this purpose. The examinations, too, are approximately four times the length of the tests. In spite of these handicaps in the case of the upper school the tests show a correlation of .68 with teachers' marks as against .69 for the examinations.

In the case of the middle school the comparison is more favourable to the examinations, which show a correlation

of .77 as against .58 for the tests. The difference between the middle and upper school is perhaps due to the more rigid limitations of the school syllabus for the middle school to which the examinations adhere closely. The opinion has frequently been expressed by teachers that, although the tests may be quite suitable for the early years of language instruction, they are entirely inadequate for the more advanced years. It is interesting to note that on the basis of a comparison with teachers' marks they are more valid for the fifth year high school work than for the fourth. Wood arrived at practically the same conclusion in the New York experiment. The new type became progressively more valid up to the fourth year high school.

One method of validation frequently used is known as "the method of widely spaced groups."¹ The test is given to groups that are known to differ widely in the ability in question. While there may be considerable overlapping, still the average of the two groups should show widely differing scores. It is possible to use this method in the case of the middle and the upper schools. If these tests are valid they should show definite progression in the two groups. Table 83 contains the scores in the three tests for the middle and upper school.

TABLE 83

	Vocabulary	Grammar	Silent Reading
Middle School	38	23	12
Upper School	48	28	16

It is clear that the tests discriminate sharply between these groups.

¹Ruch and Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, p. 323.

A further attempt was made to determine the prognostic value of the tests and the examinations by following the pupils concerned in this experiment through their first year at the university. Unfortunately, because of the many middle school pupils who continued in school for the fifth year, or at least did not enter the university, the results are based on such small numbers as to be unreliable. It was possible to obtain the records of only 40 pupils for the first year in the university, but the results are given for what they are worth. The results of the tests taken in high school give a correlation of $.39 \pm .09$ with the results of the first year university examinations. The matriculation examinations give a correlation of $.53 \pm .08$. The probable error of these coefficients is too high to permit of conclusions being based upon them favourable either to the tests or the examinations. Another sample of 40 might easily reverse the correlations.

The tests and examinations have been compared so far for reliability and validity. A comparison should also be made from the standpoint of cost of administration. Wood has shown the cost of scoring the new type Regents examination to be about one-tenth of the cost of scoring the old type examination. While figures are not available to show the complete cost of the marking of the matriculation examinations, a comparison can be made on the basis of the number read per day. Taking the average number of French papers read per day over the whole examination period as a basis, we find that it costs approximately 60 cents to score each paper. Thus the reading of two papers for each pupil costs \$1.20 without considering the cost of checking and re-reading. At the same rate of pay the four tests could be read for 10 cents. These figures are based on the speed attained by the

committee's scorers in the marking of approximately 50,000 tests. If the tests were doubled in length to obtain a very high degree of reliability we can be sure that the scoring of the tests would not cost more than 20 cents for the battery of four. At these rates the cost of scoring 10,000 examination papers would be \$12,000 while the cost of scoring the same number of new type papers consisting of four tests each would be \$2,000, or slightly over 16% of the cost of reading the examinations. As a matter of fact the figures for the tests are very conservative. There is every reason to believe that, by the use of stencils, the time required for reading the new type examinations could be reduced and the cost lowered to 15 cents a pupil.

Let us now consider the new and old type examinations from the standpoint of their effect on class-room method. We have seen that 90% of the matriculation examination consists of translation from one language to another. Admitting that translation may have some value as a measuring device, its value as a class exercise is still extremely doubtful. Buswell,¹ in discussing the effect of method on reading habits, says: "Teachers of both modern and classic languages have inherited a method of teaching which lays emphasis upon language structure and translation. The translation under this method was usually carried on with such a degree of analytical study that the process can best be described as one of deciphering. The direct method² of teaching represents a decided

¹Buswell, G. T., *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages*, p. 93.

²The implications of the term "direct method" as used by Professor Buswell in the cases studied are not to be fully identified with those suggested by such well-known advocates of the direct method as Jespersen, Kirkman, Walter, and Schweitzer, who maintain that all new linguistic phenomena must be worked over orally and be freely used by learners in speaking and writing. Professor Buswell uses the term as referring to a procedure which is summarized as "learning to read thought content by abundant experience in reading thought content from

break from this older emphasis upon analysis, and substitutes in its place an emphasis upon the type of mental activity which, when applied to the vernacular, is called reading. The psychological distinction between deciphering and reading can scarcely be over-emphasized. Students taught by a direct method attain in two years' study of a foreign language those fundamental habits which are characteristic of the person who reads. Students who are taught French by an indirect method attain these mature characteristics of reading in a much less degree. Students who are taught Latin by the indirect method exhibit these characteristics of reading in no degree at all; rather they exhibit in marked fashion the characteristics of the person who decipheres." Professor Buswell concludes that "a direct method produces desirable reading habits; a translation method does not. This seems to be equally true regardless of the type of language—as applicable to Latin as to French." It is well to remember that these conclusions of Professor Buswell are not mere opinions. They are the results of a scientific laboratory experiment.

One of the most serious, if not the most serious charge that can be made against the old type examination, is that it tends to foster the translation method in the schools. A large majority of the teachers are under the impression that the only way to prepare for a translation examination is to translate. One of the main reasons for the small amount of modern language reading done in the schools is this conviction on the part of teachers that

the beginning". In other words, it is a method the essence of which is the direct association of foreign symbols with their meaning without the intermediary use of the vernacular. West, in his "Bilingualism in Bengali", describes a somewhat similar method based upon the use of what he calls the direct bond.

all the work must be translated in class. This charge cannot be laid against the new type examination.

The results of this experiment show that by making use of the techniques employed in the tests, one can construct a new type examination superior to the old type in many particulars. The new type would be as valid as the old type, would be approximately twice as reliable, would require but half the time to administer and would cost from 10% to 15% less. These conclusions, although based on smaller numbers, agree with the conclusions of Wood¹ on almost every point.

To departments of education which hesitate to accept the conclusions of the present experiment and that of Wood, the following suggestion is made. As a rule the present examination consists of two papers, one of which is known as "Authors," the other as "Composition." Let departments seeking confirmation of the value of the new type examination devote one of the periods to this form of test reserving the other period for an examination of the old type. A careful study of the results will determine the relative value of the two types for the particular conditions. A sample new type paper is given below. This paper should contain a vocabulary test, a sentence comprehension test, a paragraph comprehension test, a grammar test and a free composition test.

NEW TYPE FRENCH EXAMINATION

PART I—VOCABULARY

DIRECTIONS: One of the five English words or phrases in each line is a correct translation of the French word. *Underscore* it, as in Examples A and B.

A. haut	hard	low	<u>high</u>	strong	brave
B. semaine	month	<u>week</u>	seven	seed	work

Time allowed: Eighteen minutes. Time spent: minutes

¹*New York Experiments with New Type Modern Language Tests*, pp. 318-319.

1. par	pair	equal	by	step	part
2. trouver	pièce	trust	trouble	find	join
3. devant	near	before	behind	during	owing
4. paraître	equal	draw	prepare	leave	appear
5. bras	arm	brave	brass	air	hook
6. souvent	memory	constant	often	following	soft
7. s'asseoir	sit down	wake up	sleep	help	hold
8. derrière	last	behind	entrance	before	stage
9. soin	evening	thirst	silk	corn	care
10. empêcher	prevent	destroy	cover	cadure	hunt

Complete test 75 words—75 items.

PART II—SENTENCE COMPREHENSION

DIRECTIONS: In each of the following statements there are five alternatives. Select the one which makes the statement most reasonable and put its number in the parenthesis at the right, as in the examples. You have thirty minutes for this part of the examination.

Examples:

1. Le chien est—1. un livre. 2. un crayon. 3. un animal. 4. un ours.
5. un sac..... (3)
2. On se sert d'encre pour—1. manger. 2. boire. 3. courir. 4. nager.
5. écrire..... (5)

1. La capitale de la France est—1. New York. 2. Londres. 3. le français.
4. Paris. 5. la Seine..... ()
2. La langue officielle des Etats-Unis est—1. l'espagnol. 2. le français.
3. l'anglais. 4. impossible. 5. très mauvaise..... ()
3. La pomme est—1. un animal. 2. un métal. 3. un légume. 4. une
mouche. 5. un fruit..... ()
4. Comme sa mère était très malade, elle a fait chercher—1. le capitaine.
2. le médecin. 3. la couturière. 4. le maître. 5. le journal.. ()
5. Quand on fait une promenade au grand soleil, le chapeau se porte sur—
1. le nez. 2. le pied. 3. la chaise. 4. la tête. 5. le genou.. ()
6. La neige est—1. verte. 2. blanche. 3. chaude. 4. inutile. 5. bleue ()
7. Quand quelqu'un pose une question, on doit presque toujours—1. partir.
2. chanter. 3. se coucher. 4. prier. 5. répondre..... ()
8. Jean a passé une année entière à Paris. Il a appris à parler la langue
du pays. La langue qu'il a apprise est—1. l'anglais. 2. l'es-
pagnol. 3. l'italien. 4. le français. 5. l'allemand..... ()
9. Quand j'aurai beaucoup d'argent j'en donnerai aux pauvres; donc je
serai—1. avare. 2. faible. 3. dangereux. 4. généreux
5. paresseux..... ()
10. Un enfant poli, quand on lui donne quelque chose, dit toujours—1. bon-
jour. 2. au revoir. 3. merci. 4. comment. 5. de bonne heure ()

—50 items

Or

PART II—SENTENCE COMPREHENSION

DIRECTIONS: The following statements in French are either true or false. Indicate by a plus sign (+) a true statement, and by a zero (0) a false statement. Put the plus signs and zeros in the parentheses at the right. Do not spend too much time on any statement. Do the easy ones first. Twenty minutes.

1. Le dimanche est un jour de travail aux Etats-Unis mais le lundi on se repose..... ()
2. Ordinairement on travaille le jour et on se repose la nuit..... ()
3. Les pères et les mères des soldats et des généraux sont heureux pendant une bataille..... ()
4. Les parents sont joyeux et fiers du succès de leurs enfants..... ()
5. L'homme riche dont la bourse est fermée aux malheureux est un être qu'on n'admire pas souvent..... ()
6. Au Canada, il neige souvent en hiver..... ()
7. La vie de l'homme est plus longue que celle du chien..... ()
8. La soeur de mon père est ma tante..... ()
9. Tout le monde dit que la guerre est bonne pour la santé..... ()
10. Un minute est la soixantième partie d'une heure..... ()

—50 items

PART III—SILENT READING

DIRECTIONS: Read the first passage attentively twice. Read carefully the four questions that follow. Be sure that you understand each of them. Then show that you have read and understood the whole passage by answering each of the questions in *English*. Your answers should be *brief* but should show that you have read and understood the passage.

Treat each passage in the same way.

Time allowed: Thirty-two minutes

-
- I. Laure a un nouveau livre que son père lui a rapporté de France. Ce livre raconte l'histoire de Jeanne d'Arc. Il est illustré de beaucoup de jolies images en couleurs. Elle lit dans son nouveau livre et elle regarde les images. Mais le professeur va lui dire d'écrire des devoirs dans son cahier au lieu de lire dans son beau livre. Elle n'aimera pas cela. Il est plus amusant de regarder de jolies images que d'écrire dans un cahier.

1. Comment Laure s'amuse-t-elle?

2. Qu'est-ce que le professeur va lui dire?

3. Pourquoi n'aime-t-elle pas cela?

4. Quel est le sujet de son livre?

II. Voici Monsieur René, quatre ans, haut comme la table. A voir sa petite figure rose, vous pensez: "Tiens! Quel bon petit garçon tout de même!"

Mais écoutez-le: à tout ce qu'on lui dit, monsieur répond toujours: "Je sais, je sais déjà." L'autre jour, il a voulu apprendre à écrire. Sa maman lui a vite préparé un beau morceau de papier blanc.

"Attends, René, a-t-elle dit, je vais te conduire la main, mon enfant."

M. René a crié comme toujours: "Je sais, je sais. Je peux tenir ma plume tout seul. Ne regarde pas, petite mère."

Quelques instants après, M. René avait de l'encre jusqu'au bout du nez, les mains noires. Et sur le papier? De l'encre, de l'encre noire partout!

1. Qu'est-ce qui fait penser que René est content de lui-même?

2. Pourquoi sa mère lui a-t-elle préparé du papier blanc?

3. Comment est-ce que sa mère veut l'aider?

4. Quel est le résultat de ses efforts?

Complete test to consist of 50 questions based on required number of paragraphs.

Do the next page.

PART IV—FRENCH GRAMMAR

DIRECTIONS: Each of the English sentences below is followed by a translation which is correct but incomplete. Each translation can be completed correctly by inserting one or more words in each blank (—). When you have decided what is necessary to complete the translation, WRITE IT ON THE LINE AT THE RIGHT OF THE TRANSLATION. Write legibly. Do not spend too much time on any one sentence. Do all the easy ones first, then go back to the harder ones if you have time. Be sure that the words you have added make a complete phrase. You will be allowed thirty-five minutes for this test.

Examples:

1. I see some dogs. Je vois (—) chiens.....des
2. I give him the book. Je (—) donne le livre.....lui.....

1. Have you the book? Avez-vous (—) livre?.....
2. Where is the ink? Où est (—) encre?.....
3. Speak to the men. Parlez (—) hommes.....
4. The boy's book. Le livre (—) garçon.....
5. She has her book. Elle a (—) livre.....
6. Your pens and mine. Vos plumes et (—).....
7. He is a soldier (soldat). Il est (—).....
8. The children's games (jeu). Les (—) des enfants.....
9. The house is large (grand). La maison est (—).....
10. The yard is small. Le cour est (—).....

—100 items

PART V—FREE COMPOSITION

Consisting of four ten minute compositions upon assigned topics or upon pictures, to be rated by the use of the composition scale.

The samples used for the sentence comprehension are taken from the tests used by Wood in the New York experiment. The other samples come from the committee's tests. In no case are they intended as anything more than examples of some of the techniques suggested. Such an examination would have to be worked out experimentally, but the result should give an examination of high reliability, approximately .96, and an examination in which subjectivity of scoring had been reduced to a minimum.

WRITTEN TESTS AS A MEASURE OF ORAL ACHIEVEMENT

Mention has already been made of the limitations of the written tests in regard to oral-aural ability (page 800). It has been argued by some teachers, especially those who use the oral method, that the new type written tests are of little value because they do not measure the oral-aural abilities. Strange to say these same teachers do not suggest that the old type written examination should be discarded although it is not clear that it measures oral-aural ability any better than the new type. While it has never been claimed that written tests give a direct measure of oral-aural abilities, it is felt that, inasmuch as these abilities depend on a knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, the tests measure them indirectly as accurately as, and probably more accurately than any other method yet devised. The interrelationships between the abilities measured by the written tests have been studied in the American, English and Canadian schools (page 800).

It has been asserted that oral-aural ability is relatively independent of achievement in the written language. In order to ascertain what relation, if any, exists between written achievement and the oral-aural skills, the Canadian Committee undertook a study of the following abilities:

- (1) Ability to read French,
- (2) Ability to comprehend spoken French,
- (3) Ability to write French,
- (4) Ability to speak French.

The tests necessary for this experiment were administered by Mr. F. R. Robert, supervisor of French instruction in the Protestant schools of Montreal. As the experiment deals with interrelationships between oral-aural abilities and achievement in the written language, it was felt that the schools of Montreal provided ideal conditions for such an enquiry as the oral method is used there exclusively.

For the purpose of measuring achievement in the written language use, was made of the Canadian Committee's silent reading test and of form A of the free composition tests. The measurement of oral-aural abilities offered difficulty because of the lack of standardized tests. In the case of aural comprehension recourse was had to an audition test devised by Miss A. L. Rogers,¹ and partly standardized. The testing technique used was the five response multiple choice type. The examiner asks: *Avec quoi écrit-on?*" The pupil has before him the words *brush, pen, paper, cretonne, knife*, with instructions to underline the word which answers the question. A sample is given below of the first ten items.

PAGE FOR TEACHER

1. A quel âge va-t-on à l'école?
2. En été, lors qu'il fait soleil où s'asseyait-on?
3. Quand on vous donne des sous, où les mettez-vous?
4. Quand le soir arrive, qui est fatigué?
5. Avec un crayon on écrit et que fait-on aussi?
6. Si vous perdez votre mouchoir où en achetez-vous un autre?
7. Qu'y a-t-il au bout de vos bras?

¹A detailed account of this test will be found in Henmon, V. A. C., *Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*, chapter 9, section 6.

8. Qui est-ce qui aime les bonbons?
9. A qui dit-on au revoir?
10. Où se promène-t-on dans les champs?

PAGE FOR PUPILS

1	2	3	4	5
forty	sky	below	worker	pinch
book	shade	uncle	idler	stars
six	Laura	pocket	owe	draw
teacher	lamp	street	night	high
thirty	chimney	shoe	day	paper
6	7	8	9	10
fly	tiger	boots	visitor	farmer
butcher	radish	hands	look	theatre
grocery	girl	elbow	seed	leaves
store	sweet	pins	burglar	country
gasoline	good	brass	garden	shampoo

The test used in this experiment was constructed from two preliminary series furnished by Miss Rogers. Changes were made in the questions in certain cases where, in the opinion of Mr. Robert they were unsuitable for the Montreal schools because of form or content.

A measure of oral ability was found in the oral marks assigned by the teachers. This mark is a composite measure covering oral proficiency and phonetic accuracy. It is unanalysable and is undoubtedly influenced by such factors as aural comprehension, ability to translate orally, and functional grammar. Objection may be raised to the use of this mark on the score of its unreliability. Teachers' marks are, as a rule, subjective and highly unreliable. In the Montreal high school system, however, oral marks are based on a series of oral tests. These tests and the

teachers' marks are checked by the supervisor and the whole procedure has been so standardized that the result is a highly reliable oral mark. Table 84 contains the median scores, the standard deviations, and the number of cases for each grade in each test.

TABLE 84

Grade	VIII			IX			X			XI		
	Mdn.	σ	N	Mdn.	σ	N	Mdn.	σ	N	Mdn.	σ	N
Sil. Read.	6	3.76	205	9.5	4.00	277	12.4	3.82	287	15	3.26	188
Free Comp.	8	1.77	231	9	1.88	286	10	1.82	331	11	1.83	207
Audition.....	42	7.24	285	45.6	5.72	315	47	4.65	331	48	2.43	207
Oral Marks.....	73.4	16.42	285	71.1	14.22	311	69.6	12.42	311	69.4	10.36	206

An examination of this table shows a very marked difference between the written tests and the oral marks. While all the written tests show a progression from year to year the medians for the oral marks show a slight decrease. This does not, of course, indicate a decrease in achievement. It merely proves that a different standard is being used in each grade. In other words, the standard in each grade is the work of that grade, and the oral marks, which are percentages, indicate that the median achievement of the class for grade VIII is 73% of the work assigned to grade VIII, whereas the median achievement for grade XI is 69% of the work assigned to grade XI. The decrease from 73% to 69% does not really indicate a decrease in the achievement of grade XI but probably indicates an unconscious raising of the standard on the part of the teachers of the higher grade. An examination of the standard deviations of the free composition and silent reading tests shows that these tests are equally discriminating for all grades. The medians for the audition test show that this test was much too easy for the pupils of the Montreal high schools

and the decrease in the standard deviation from grade to grade shows the test to be much less discriminating in the upper grades.

The value of this experiment is lessened by the lack of discrimination in the audition test and the fact that the standard of the oral marks differs from year to year, but the results are given as indicating tendencies only. Table 85 contains the intercorrelations between the four tests. The figures in parentheses indicate the number of cases for each correlation.

TABLE 85

Grade	VIII		IX		X		XI		Total
	r	σ	r	σ	r	σ	r	σ	r
Free Comp....	.59	1.79	.55	1.78	.60	1.84	.46	1.82	.67
Sil. Read	(205)	3.86	(277)	4.00	(287)	3.98	(188)	3.38	(957)
Sil. Read.....	.54	3.72	.52	4.00	.44	3.52	.26	3.02	.58
Audition.....	(173)	7.74	(315)	5.74	(298)	4.44	(195)	2.48	(981)
Oral Marks....	.64	16.00	.51	14.62	.49	12.40	.36	10.00	.44
Audition.....	(285)	6.92	(237)	5.82	(311)	4.82	(206)	2.42	(1040)
Free Comp.....	.59	1.76	.45	1.90	.46	1.79	.39	1.81	.0
Audition.....	(231)	7.06	(286)	5.60	(331)	4.70	(207)	2.40	(1055)
Sil. Read.....	.63	3.74	.48	3.98	.35	3.96	.28	3.30	.31
Oral Marks....	(172)	17.30	(315)	14.10	(288)	12.25	(186)	10.55	(961)
Free Comp.....	.63	1.75	.51	1.98	.44	1.84	.40	1.87	.26
Oral Marks....	(231)	15.95	(271)	13.95	(309)	12.60	(205)	10.55	(1015)

In comparing the coefficients of correlation in table 85 one must remember that these coefficients have little meaning if unsupported by other facts, for r fluctuates with changes in range of talent, that is the extent of individual differences among the pupils on whom r is computed. The standard deviation is the best measure of range of talent in general, and Kelley has expressed

the relation between the magnitude of the standard deviation by a formula.¹ This may be used in comparing coefficients where the standard deviations vary greatly. An examination of table 85 shows that the standard deviations vary from grade to grade. By the use of Kelley's formula we find the correlations for grades IX, X and XI and the total range on the basis of the standard deviation of the first year. Table 86 contains the correlations between the different abilities as they would have been if they had been computed on the same range of talent as is found in the first year.

TABLE 86

Grade	VIII	IX	X	XI	Total
Composition59	.54	.58	.54	.73
Silent Reading					
Silent Reading54	.56	.73	.83	.68
Audition					
Oral Marks64	.60	.71	.81	.57
Audition					
Composition59	.61	.71	.86	.67
Audition					
Silent Reading63	.72	.62	.68	.48
Oral Marks					
Composition63	.61	.63	.71	.52
Oral Marks					

Let us examine first the relationship between comprehension of the written or printed language (silent reading) and comprehension of the spoken language (audition). The original coefficients in table 85, .54,

¹Ruch and Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*, p. 363.

.52, .44, .26 and .58 for the total range would lead us to believe that, while there is a marked positive relationship between these two abilities, this relation tends to decrease with years of study. It is noticeable, however, that the average standard deviation decreases from grade to grade. When we examine table 86, we find the coefficients .54, .56, .73, .83 and total range .68. This indicates a much closer relationship between the abilities and shows that the relationship increases from grade to grade.

Next in importance is the relationship between the ability to write (free composition) and ability to speak (oral mark). The original correlations for each of the four high school grades and total range are .63, .51, .44, .40 and .36. Judging from these correlations, the relationship between these abilities shows a marked tendency to decrease. It must be noted, first, that, as has already been mentioned, the oral mark is not a pure measure of ability to speak, but is a complex and unanalysable mark measuring also ability to translate, functional grammar and phonetic accuracy; second, judging from the marked decrease in the standard deviation for the oral marks from year to year, the teachers' marks are not as discriminating in the fourth year as they are in the earlier years. Part of this decrease is undoubtedly due to the elimination of poor pupils thus tending to decrease the range. That it is not wholly due to this is shown by an examination of the standard deviations of the written tests which never show more than a slight decrease except in the case of the audition test which fails markedly to distribute the pupils of grades X and XI. The corrected coefficients from table 86, .63, .61, .63, .71, show a very marked positive relationship between speaking and writing with a tendency for this relationship to increase with years of study of the language. The

original total correlation of .36 and the corrected correlation of .52 are disappointingly low but are undoubtedly due to the unreliability of teachers' marks and the pooling of marks from different years where different standards exist. It will be noticed in every correlation with marks that the total correlation is lower than the lowest of the individual correlations. This was found to be the case also in correlations with teachers' marks in other Canadian schools as also in English schools.

The corrected correlations from table 86, of .64, .60, .71, .81 for the individual grades with .57 for the total range indicate that an audition test of the type used is a measure of aural comprehension possessing a high degree of validity, if teachers' marks are any criterion. While data concerning the reliability of this test are not available, it will undoubtedly prove to be more reliable than teachers' marks. The correlations between this test and the oral marks indicate also that to a considerable degree it may be regarded as an indirect measure of oral ability.

The correlations between composition, silent reading, and audition are high enough to indicate a very considerable relationship between these abilities, so great indeed that there can be no doubt that training in any one of these abilities tends to cause a growth in the other two.

Besides the correlations in tables 85 and 86, the following correlations were found for individual teachers' marks with the vocabulary, grammar and silent reading tests.

Considering the limited range these correlations are high, and indicate a very considerable positive relationship between the written tests and oral ability as represented by oral marks. If the oral marks given by the teachers are a reliable index of oral ability then the

TABLE 87

Teacher	Grade	Vocabulary	Grammar	Silent Reading
A	10, 11	.66	.68	.56
B	9, 11	.58	.58	.56
C	9	.44	.56	.42
D	8	.53	.54	.51
E	8	.30	.55	.54
F	8	.56	.64	.41

written tests may be considered a valid, if indirect, measure of oral achievement. It will be noticed that, while the correlations vary greatly for the different teachers, with but one exception, grammar shows the highest correlation. Grammatical knowledge clearly is the most important factor in determining the oral mark.

As has been pointed out at the beginning of this chapter (page 837), the argument has frequently been advanced that the new type tests are of little or no value because they do not measure oral-aural achievement, and consequently are unfair to the pupils of any school system where the method used is exclusively or in large part oral.

The results of the present experiment prove that in a system such as that of the Montreal high schools where the oral method is used exclusively, the new type tests do measure oral-aural achievement indirectly. Considering the greater reliability of the written tests, they are, from the standpoint of comparability, much superior to the oral mark. It is interesting to note that the correlations between the written tests and the oral marks are quite as high as the correlations between the written tests and teachers' marks in the rest of Canada or in the English system, where the marks used were in no sense a measure of oral-aural achievement. This would lead one to believe that the written tests are quite as valid for the oral method as for any other. Furthermore, it has been

shown that the relation between oral and aural ability is high enough to consider an audition test to be a reasonably accurate measure of oral ability.

Taking into account the known variability of teachers' marks, it seems certain that a better and more comparable measure of oral-aural ability can be obtained by means of a battery of written tests, including an audition test, than by using an oral mark assigned by the teachers.

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND FRENCH PUPILS IN RESPECT TO ABILITY IN READING AND WRITING FRENCH

The completion and standardization of the committee's language tests has furnished certain definite facts. By establishing norms we are able to state the normal achievement of classes at certain periods of study of the foreign language. We know for instance that pupils in Canadian high schools who have studied French for $4\frac{1}{2}$ years have the following median scores: vocabulary, 46; grammar, 30.9; silent reading, 18.5; free composition, 10.4. However, the true significance of these scores is not apparent. Do they represent a satisfactory result? Can we say that a pupil who has studied French for $4\frac{1}{2}$ years and has obtained a reading ability represented by a score of 18 on the reading test has made satisfactory progress? It is true we can make comparisons between various school systems, and such comparisons lead us to believe that this score is low and that a change in methods might raise the norm to a considerable degree.¹ Further light may be thrown on this question by a comparison with the scores made by foreign pupils on the language tests. Thus if we were able to define the scores made on the tests in terms of age norms for native pupils we could have a clearer idea of the value of these scores.

In the case of vocabulary and grammar this would require a complete recasting of the tests and the printing of a new edition. The form of the silent reading and the

¹Compare articles on school and class variations in achievement, pages 680, 689, 705, 712, 727, 730.

free composition tests makes them available for an experiment of this type without any change, and it was decided to use them for this purpose. The French tests were chosen since the co-operation of the educational authorities of the province of Quebec made it possible to have these tests administered in the French schools. It was planned to give them to about 1000 pupils of the elementary schools and classical colleges, but in the end slightly under half of this number were tested. Form A of the silent reading test was given to 494 pupils. The directions were read to the pupils in French and they were asked to answer the questions in French instead of English. In the case of the composition test the pupils were asked to write in French a short composition upon the picture. The time and conditions were strictly observed so that it can safely be said that the tests were given under the same conditions as in other Canadian schools. The tests were scored in the same way as those of the English-speaking pupils and the free compositions were scored by means of the composition scale. It will be noted that 42 of the 489 free compositions were considered distinctly better than number 17 on the scale, and were marked 17+. Tables 88 and 89 give the median scores for the various ages.

TABLE 88—SILENT READING

Years	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Median	14.9	16.6	17.3	17.4	18.5	18.6	18.7	18.8	19.7	19.3
No. of cases	15	29	83	142	114	120	73	32	27	14

TABLE 89—FREE COMPOSITION

Years	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Median	13.7	14.2	14.6	15	15.5	15.5	15.8	16.4	16.9	17.1
No. of cases	19	24	78	142	116	117	76	30	26	15

While the number of cases at the extreme ages is too small to furnish absolutely reliable medians, still both tests indicate a steady increase in the abilities measured and show no regressions except for silent reading at the 19 year level, where the number of cases is only 14. Plateaus are noticeable in the results from both tests. Thus in silent reading there is little difference between the ages 12 and 13, and progress is exceedingly slow from 14 to 17.

We are now able by means of the median scores to compare the achievement of English-speaking pupils and French pupils in reading and writing French. Tables 90 and 91 contain the median scores in silent reading and free composition for American, Canadian and English schools.

TABLE 90—SILENT READING

Years.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$
United States.....	5.9	13	17.2	19.3			
Canada.....	2.7	5.8	9.2	14	18.5		
England.....	1.6	3.6	8.3	11.9	15.1	15.9	18.3

TABLE 91—FREE COMPOSITION

Years.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$
United States.....	5.8	7.3	8.3	8.9			
Canada.....	5.6	6.8	7.1	9	10.4		
England.....	6.1	8.2	8.9	9.9	11.7	13.1	13.7

Let us examine first the scores in silent reading. The lowest age level we have for French-Canadian pupils is 10 years and the median score 14.9. While the number of cases at this level is only 15, the relation of the score to the scores of the later levels seems to indicate that this figure is approximately correct. If we examine the median scores in reading of the American schools, we see that this score is not reached until approximately the end of the

second year's instruction in French, where the average age of pupils is approximately 15 years. Thus there is an age discrepancy of 5 years between the age of the class and the type of French they are able to read. At the age of 15, having studied French for 2 years, they can read French of a type suitable for a French-Canadian child of 10.

In the case of Canadian schools conditions are even worse. The Canadian pupil does not reach the reading score of 14.9 until approximately the end of the fourth year in high school, when the average age of the class is 17. There is in this case a discrepancy of 7 years between the chronological age of the pupil and the type of French that he can read. It has taken four years of instruction for the Canadian pupil to attain the reading ability of the French-Canadian pupil of 10 as compared with two years for the American pupil.

While the pupil in the schools of England attains the reading ability of a French-Canadian pupil of 10 about the end of the fourth year of the secondary school, the age discrepancy is somewhat less since the English pupil enters the secondary school earlier than the Canadian or American pupil. The average age of the English pupil at the end of the fourth year of the secondary school is approximately 16 years, giving an age discrepancy of 6 years or one year less than in the case of the Canadian pupil.

In free composition a similar condition is found. The writing ability of the French-Canadian pupil of 10 years is represented by a score of 13.7 on the French composition scale. American and Canadian pupils with 4 and 5 years of instruction in French respectively, and averaging 17 and 18 years, obtain a score of approximately 9 and 11 on the composition scale. That is, they have not yet

reached the writing ability of a French-Canadian pupil of 10. The English pupil with $6\frac{1}{2}$ years of instruction in French and an average age of approximately 18 years obtains 13.7. The English pupil shows an age discrepancy in writing of 8 years. As American and Canadian pupils have not reached the 10 year score of French-Canadian pupils, it is impossible to calculate the age discrepancy in an exact manner. One second year honour class in a Canadian university obtained the score of 13.7. The average age of the students was 20 and the years of instruction 7, of which five were spent in high school. These students show an age discrepancy of 10 years. Judging by the American norms, the American pupils would show an age discrepancy of at least one year more, that is 11 years.

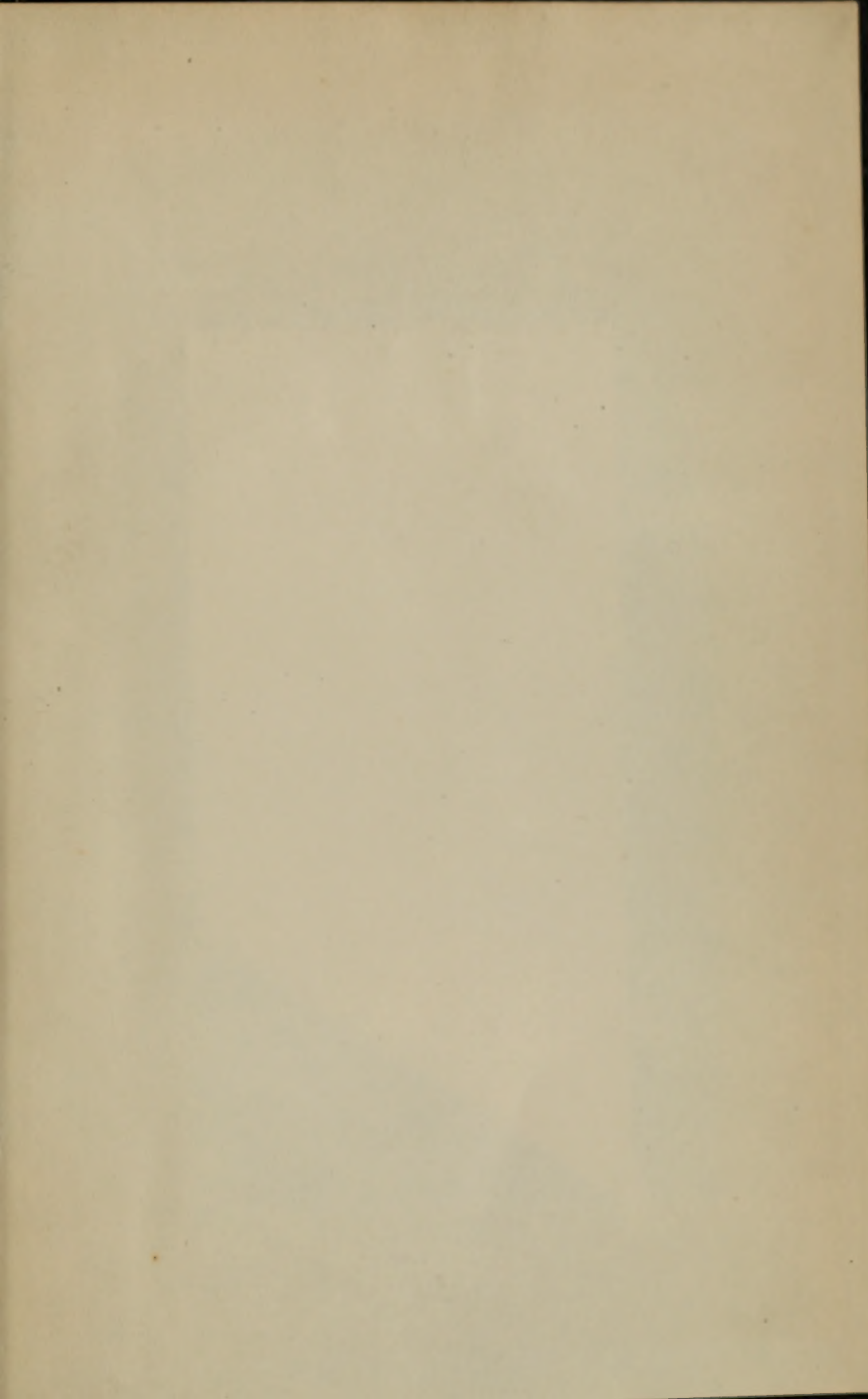
West has shown that a Bengali boy is from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ years behind an English boy of corresponding age in English reading ability.¹ The results of the present experiment show that American, Canadian and English pupils are from 5 to 7 years behind French-Canadian pupils in French reading ability.

As West points out, in order to interest anyone in the reading of a foreign language, it is necessary to provide material which is suited to his intelligence as well as to his vocabulary. This age discrepancy, is, therefore, an exceedingly serious matter. How can the Canadian pupil of 17 be interested in French when he is asked to devote his attention to literature that is suited to a child of 10? If on the contrary he is given literature suited to his age, vocabulary and syntactic difficulties render it so hard that he cannot read with any enjoyment, and confines his work to the amount actually prescribed by the teacher from day to day.

¹*Bilingualism.*

The solution of the difficulty seems to be to furnish students with a literature in the foreign language suited to their age and intelligence, but edited in such a way, in respect to vocabulary and syntactic phenomena, that they can read it with ease and enjoyment.¹

¹West (*op. cit.* p. 236) has defined ease and enjoyment in terms of the number of words per page which a pupil must look up in the dictionary. He gives the limit as five or six words per page of 200 words.



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